

THE
SATURDAY REVIEW
OF
POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 1,063, Vol. 41.

March 11, 1876.

[Registered for
Transmission abroad.]

Price 6d.

THE ROYAL TITLE.

WHATEVER may be the opinion generally entertained as to the propriety of the title which the QUEEN is to be advised to assume, there can be very little difference of judgment as to the manner in which Mr. DISRAELI has managed the business of bringing the subject before Parliament. He has been mysterious about nothing, and has demeaned himself as if he were in some high and delicate atmosphere of prerogative which his humble lungs were hardly able to breathe. There is no question of prerogative at all. The QUEEN cannot take a new title, or make any alteration in her title, except under an Act of Parliament. The reason is that the title of the Sovereign is of importance to the nation as well as to the QUEEN. As it is of this importance, Parliament must be informed of the title which it is proposed she should take. Mr. DISRAELI on Thursday night explained his refusal to disclose the title previously by saying that he thought the best time to disclose it was on the occasion of the motion for a second reading. This may be convenient to the House or not, but there is nothing grand or mysterious about it. It is a mere detail of Parliamentary procedure. Before the Bill could make any serious progress the Government had to state that it had made up its mind that the addition to the Royal title should not refer to the Colonies, that it should refer to India as a whole, and that the title should be Empress. For the exclusion of the Colonies from recognition in the new title, Mr. DISRAELI gave on Thursday the worst possible reason that he could have discovered. On the introduction of the Bill he gave a much better one. He then said that the Colonies were really included, and liked to be thought included, in the United Kingdom. Colonists were merely Englishmen living in a different part of the world. The objection to this view was that, if this were so, to treat India as not included in the United Kingdom was to stamp it with inferiority, and to mark off a harsh division between the QUEEN'S subjects. But at any rate the reason, such as it was, seemed complimentary to the colonists. They were above needing any mark of recognition. But on Thursday Mr. DISRAELI quite changed his ground. It is not colonists generally, but a few rich colonists who return to England, that occupy his attention. Gentlemen who pick up nuggets, or fleece thousands of sheep, hurry to England, take grand houses, buy estates, are presented at Court, and so have as much to do with the QUEEN as they could wish. It is through the lucky adventurers who give up the Colonies and spend their money in England that the close tie between the QUEEN and her Colonies is preserved. Colonial loyalty is to be discovered in a South Kensington palace, not in the attachment to the Crown of vast new nations spreading the English name over the world. It is not of Canada or the Dominion, but of the Canadians who do not think Canada good enough for them, that the QUEEN is supposed to think with pride when she contemplates her titles on her coins. It is true that the colonists are quite satisfied with things as they are, particularly as it has not perhaps hitherto occurred to them that the only people among them worthy of the QUEEN'S notice are those who will have nothing more to do with them. In any case they must be very well pleased to be left out, if the new title is to be that of Empress. No Englishmen in any part of the world want to exchange the name of their QUEEN for the Brummagem dignity of an Empress. Even if they are humble enough to be content

to stay in the place of their birth or adoption, they are proud enough to reject the thought that their Sovereign would be more to them if she was decked out with the frippery of a grander name.

The main reason alleged for advising the QUEEN to assume a title with special reference to India is that the natives of India are said to be burning with a wild desire to see the QUEEN invested with this new dignity. The proofs of this desire furnished by the Government are of the feeblest description. Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE, who is by no means without just notions of the meaning of evidence, must have felt himself at his wit's end for something like a proof, when, as a sign of the wishes of India, he adduced a letter written, not by a native, but by an Englishman, and not to a native, but to a person in Central Asia, in which the writer had, as a kind of imposing flourish, called the QUEEN Empress of Hindostan. A non-existent title, referring to a non-existent State, bestowed gratis by an Englishman in corresponding with a foreigner, is the quaintest indication of the wishes of the natives of India that a Minister could have imagined. But, although it may be difficult or impossible to prove that the natives wish for a special Royal title referring to them, it may be quite true that such a wish exists, and that it would be wise as a matter of sentiment, and prudent for many political purposes, to gratify this wish. Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL, who knows India well, is of this opinion, and no one of Indian experience and position controverted it. Mr. GLADSTONE pointed out that the QUEEN is technically only Queen of the portions of India belonging to the East India Company transferred to her, and that a title claiming supremacy over all India is an innovation. But it is an innovation expressing a fact. The chiefs who are called independent in India are not really independent. It would be hard to state precisely and with legal accuracy what is the nature of the supremacy to which they are subjected. But such a supremacy exists, and a title is a good mode of recording this supremacy without defining it. In India itself the new title will, according to Sir GEORGE CAMPBELL, be Padishah, the highest title of sovereignty, whatever may be the English rendering; and what the people of India wish, what the chiefs are ready to recognize, and what the experience of competent Englishmen acquainted with India would approve, is that the QUEEN should in India be called Padishah. It is a matter of regret that the question has not been treated, as it might very easily have been, as a purely Indian one. If Parliament had simply been asked to enact that the QUEEN'S title in India should be Padishah, that all official documents and Indian coins should be made in accordance with this title, and that the Sovereign or her children when in India, and the Viceroy as representing her, should for all Indian purposes be treated as a Padishah, or as the descendants or representatives of a Padishah, the natives would have got all they would have wished, the colonists would have had nothing to do with the business, and we in England should not have been troubled with the discussion whether the QUEEN was to be an Empress.

But the Government has decided that the QUEEN is to be an Empress. She is in England, in Europe, everywhere, to have an Imperial as well as a Royal dignity. If Englishmen are asked whether they like this, every one must, since it is a pure question of feeling, answer for himself; and all we can say is that we do not like it at all. No doubt "Empress" is an English word, as Mr. DISRAELI went very much out of his way to prove. We habitually speak of the

British Empire, and the Imperial dignity of the Crown is a phrase recognized in an Act of Parliament. SPENSER wrote a dedication in which he called ELIZABETH an Empress; and, as Mr. DISRAELI argued, SPENSER knew courtiers, and perhaps they approved of the word, and the courtiers had access to the QUEEN, and perhaps they mentioned the dedication to the QUEEN before it was published and obtained her approval. It is equally possible that none of this happened, but there is nothing improbable in the notion of ELIZABETH being tickled with any piece of personal flattery. But arguments like these have nothing to do with the question whether now Parliament should authorize the QUEEN to call herself Empress. We must take the term as it stands now, with its present meaning and its present historical associations. These associations are to English minds unpleasant ones. There have of course been good Emperors and bad Emperors. There have been the ANTONINES, and there have been NERO and DOMITIAN. There have been ALEXANDERS and PAULS. The Emperor originally held, as Mr. GLADSTONE said, an elective military office; and so far the title is very inappropriate to the QUEEN; but it must be allowed that modern usage has changed the meaning of the term. But if this modern usage is to tell, it must also bring with it its own associations, and especially those of the French Second Empire, and we prefer our QUEEN not imitating the NAPOLEONS. Then, again, Emperor is generally thought to be a grander title than King. Technically speaking, this is not recognized in diplomatic circles. The representative of the Emperor of RUSSIA has no precedence over the representative of the King of SWEDEN. But, popularly speaking—and in a matter of popular sentiment we must attend to popular usage—an Emperor is thought to be somebody grander than a King. The old story of the meeting of the Sovereigns to pay their court to NAPOLEON, when a visitor hung about unnoticed and a lackey explained that it was “only a King,” comes naturally into the memory. In England we are proud of not sharing the feelings of the lackey. We like to think that our Sovereign is “only a Queen.” It is the simplicity of greatness that accords with our tastes, and the feeling prompts itself that Mr. DISRAELI is inclined to regard the matter too much from the lackey point of view, and to find a pleasure in shouting out a sonorous title which his countrymen who have less taste for pageants and ceremonials do not share.

INCIDENTS OF THE SUEZ CANAL DISCUSSION.

MR. GLADSTONE and Mr. LOWE have already received some compensation for the mortifying failure of their attack on the Suez Canal purchase. The measure was wise, but there has been great mismanagement in some of the subsidiary arrangements, and Mr. DISRAELI has in incidental discussions betrayed a want of his usual tact and temper. A Minister who seldom troubles himself to master details is at a disadvantage in meeting criticism on the acts of the Government, but long practice has taught Mr. DISRAELI to rely too confidently on his own adroitness and on his just influence in the House of Commons. He has now been misled by an easy victory over his opponents in the principal debate on the Suez purchase. The House was not inclined to adopt Mr. GLADSTONE's objections to the mode in which the money had been borrowed, because the main issue to be considered was whether it had been judicious to acquire an interest in the undertaking. Mr. LOWE played into the hands of the Government by his unseasonable reference to his own skill in providing for the payment of the *Alabama* damages. Having once for all affirmed the soundness of the Ministerial policy, the House of Commons is now at leisure to consider the terms on which the purchase money was advanced. It may perhaps have been, as Sir STAFFORD NORTHCOTE contended, difficult or impossible to obtain at a moment's notice the whole amount from the Bank of England; but the payments to the KHEDIVÉ were likely to be spread over several weeks, and there was therefore time to arrange for the advance of the later instalments on favourable terms. The Government may perhaps have had good reasons for not publishing the transaction as soon as the bargain was closed, so as to prevent the speculation in shares which followed the disclosure of the secret in Egypt; but no explanation of the temporary maintenance of secrecy has been given to Parliament. The subject will recur as often as Mr. GLADSTONE finds an opportunity of reasserting his own opinion and of throwing discredit on the Government. Mr.

DISRAELI would be well advised in entrusting to the CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER the duty of repelling attacks. Not being a match for his ancient rival and adversary in discussions on finance and business, he may prudently reserve himself for occasions on which Mr. GLADSTONE's eagerness may give an opening for retaliatory criticism. Expressions of ironical satisfaction at every fresh illustration of the relations of the Government to the Suez Canal Company will soon pall on the taste of the House. The pleasure which a political opponent feels in every discomfiture of the Government is not universally shared when the country suffers through the alleged error of the Ministers.

One unqualified blunder of the Government has been aggravated by a display of irritable obstinacy which is not ordinarily characteristic of Mr. DISRAELI. In 1871 proposals for a change in the ownership of the Suez Canal had been suggested in several quarters. The KHEDIVÉ had expressed to Colonel STANTON, then Consul-General in Egypt, an opinion in favour of the transfer of the property either to an English Company or to the English Government. The Italian Government about the same time suggested the joint acquisition of the Canal by the maritime States. The Commune then occupied Paris; the war with Germany had recently ended; and it seemed doubtful whether M. DE LESSEPS could induce his shareholders to provide funds which were urgently required. Sir DANIEL LANGE, agent or representative of the Company in England, thought that, in the interest of all parties, the English Government ought to purchase the property; and he communicated his opinion both to M. DE LESSEPS and to Lord GRANVILLE, who was then Foreign Secretary. M. DE LESSEPS at first expressed strong repugnance to the proposal; but on reconsideration he intimated a disposition to negotiate a sale to the maritime Powers. Sir D. LANGE, with sound judgment, adhered to the scheme of exclusive English ownership and management; and the Turkish Ambassador in London devised the project of an ostensible sale to Turkey, which was then to transfer the property to England. The Turkish Government refused to countenance a sale to an International Commission; and it is not clear whether it would have acquiesced in English ownership. The correspondence ended with a formal refusal on the part of Lord GRANVILLE to engage in the transaction. Sir D. LANGE must have formed an erroneous estimate of Mr. GLADSTONE's policy when he proposed to his Government a bold and costly enterprise. Although he had himself held the same language to M. DE LESSEPS and to Lord GRANVILLE, he had not communicated to his official superior the overtures which he had made to the English Government. Some of his letters to Lord GRANVILLE had been marked “private and confidential,” and the whole correspondence was of the same nature, and was entitled to the same protection. When Mr. DISRAELI declares that two of the most important letters were sent without the proper heading, he makes an excuse which is at the same time frivolous and inaccurate. All Sir D. LANGE's letters are important; and the publication of those which were not marked “private and confidential” would have had the same effect with the publication of the whole correspondence.

As soon as Sir D. LANGE's letters appeared in the Appendix to the Suez Canal papers, he was summarily dismissed by M. DE LESSEPS from the service of the Company. It is useless to inquire whether M. DE LESSEPS was morally justified in an act which he had evidently power to perform; but it may be admitted that there were expressions in the letters which might naturally cause offence; nor was it unnatural that the President of the Company should resent the independent proceedings of an agent. On the other hand, there is no doubt of the loyalty of Sir D. LANGE, who urged on M. DE LESSEPS the same policy which he recommended to the English Government. The penalty which his frankness has incurred sufficiently proves the futility of attempts to show that some or all of his letters were not private and confidential. Any person who incurs risk of loss or inconvenience when he furnishes information to Government is strictly entitled to the protection of secrecy. In one of his hasty explanations Mr. DISRAELI observed that the letters were addressed, not to the present Foreign Minister, but to his predecessor. He also seemed to wish to devolve some of the responsibility of publication on Lord GRANVILLE, to whom the letters had been sent in accordance, as it seems, with the usual custom. The office of Foreign Minister is permanent and identical

through all changes of incumbency. The confidential character of communications to the Foreign Secretary would be worth little if his successor were relieved from all obligation of confidence. Lord DERBY, who has not succeeded better than Mr. DISRAELI in defending his conduct, admits that he is exclusively responsible for the publication. Lord GRANVILLE's share in the business ended with the letters in which he refused to negotiate for the purchase of the Canal. Mr. DISRAELI has more than once refused to avail himself of the excuse that the publication of the letters resulted from inadvertence; and though Mr. GLADSTONE still professes to think that an oversight had been committed, Mr. DISRAELI is right in asserting that the blunder of the Government was perfectly deliberate. Lord TENTERDEN, in his able and lucid summary of the history of the Canal, inserts in the proper places abridgments of Sir D. LANGE's letters. The Under Secretary must be supposed to have called Lord DERBY's attention to the confidential nature of the communication; and Lord DERBY deliberately justifies the publication of the letters on the ground that Parliament was entitled to information as to the overtures made in 1871. It is true that in many cases the confidential character of a communication is removed by lapse of time; but the interval in this case has not been sufficient to relieve Sir D. LANGE from the consequences of his correspondence with the English Government. Mr. DISRAELI's disclaimer of carelessness is sustained at the cost of incurring a graver charge. There has been inadvertence and oversight, in the sense, not of neglect, but of deliberate misconception of duty.

The ill wind which blows on the Government brings good to Mr. GLADSTONE. His sneers are even pointed by a reference to the hardships and claims of Sir D. LANGE which might almost imply a willingness to compensate him at the public expense for the loss of his place. It is difficult to believe that Mr. GLADSTONE would pay such a price even for the pleasure of inferring from the proceeding of M. DE LESSEPS that the English Government has secured no influence over the policy of the Canal Company. On this point Lord DERBY can afford to bear Mr. GLADSTONE's sarcasms with equanimity. It is still true that the possession of nearly half the capital must confer influence on the holder, although the effect may not be direct or immediate. M. DE LESSEPS is master of the administration, and he can dismiss his subordinates at pleasure; but M. DE LESSEPS, though he is fortunately active and vigorous, is not immortal, and English influence will be felt in the selection of his successor. In the meantime the most formidable of M. DE LESSEPS's claims to the support of the French Government has been greatly and permanently weakened by the English purchase. But for the prompt action of the Government the entire enterprise would by this time have become French, probably with the ulterior consequence of absorption by the State. M. DE LESSEPS has never been wanting in self-assertion, which might by his enemies be deemed to border on arrogance. It is probable that a collateral motive for dismissing Sir D. LANGE was a desire to inflict a slight on the English Government; but even M. DE LESSEPS can forget his jealousy when anything is to be gained by co-operation. The modified tariff which has been provisionally settled with Colonel STANTON may probably promote a feeling of greater cordiality. Mr. DISRAELI's angry explanations would be more effective if he understood better the strength and weakness of his position. It is not only in discussions on the Suez purchase that he is unfortunate in his exposition of his Egyptian policy. The refusal of the Government to sanction the establishment of the proposed Bank by the appointment of a Commissioner was generally approved; and it was unnecessary to add that a more ambitious and more questionable mode of interference might perhaps be adopted. It is highly probable that no measure of the kind is really contemplated; and that Mr. GLADSTONE's argumentative indignation was only applicable to an offhand notion which had crossed Mr. DISRAELI's mind.

THE OXFORD UNIVERSITY BILL.

THE debate in the House of Lords on the University of Oxford Bill showed that a few members even of that assembly hesitate to abolish one of the most distinctive of English institutions. Lord COLCHESTER received no support for his amendment, but several speakers intimated disapproval of the measure which nevertheless they allow to

pass without opposition. It is possible that in the House of Commons Lord SALISBURY's tenderness for clerical endowments may provoke more objection than his sweeping abolition of lay fellowships. About twelve peers submitted to the hardship of being late for dinner, while the mover of the Bill repeated again and again, as if in answer to a challenge, the sneering epithet of "idle" fellowships. Lord CARNARVON contended that the claims of the University were prior to the rights of candidates who have hitherto had a prospect of valuable prizes. It is a new and strange doctrine that all corporate property is at all times subject to the absolute disposal of Parliament. A generation may arise in which the House of Lords, if the House of Lords shall have survived so long, may think some other object more beneficial than the learning and research which are, by some undefined process, to absorb endowments of 100,000*l.* a year. When that time comes, Lord SALISBURY and his colleagues will have established a precedent for disendowment which will admit of adoption and of extension. The Archbishop of CANTERBURY, who is only anxious that legislation on the Universities should come to an end, might have been expected to foresee that disestablishment will be facilitated by arbitrary redistribution. If Lord CARNARVON's principle is sound, the argument against Church endowment will be conclusive, as soon as Parliament may hold that any other application of ecclesiastical property would be more beneficial to the community.

Lord SALISBURY laid stress on the expediency of allowing the Universities or the Colleges to legislate for themselves; and he has probably ascertained that the majority of the resident body concurs in his general policy; yet the Bill allows the Colleges only a discretion of the same kind with that which is exercised by a Dean and Chapter on receipt of a *congé d'élire*. Up to the end of 1877 the Colleges may anticipate the action of the Commissioners; but their proceedings are subject to the veto of the Commission. From the beginning of 1878 the Commissioners may regard the whole property of the Colleges, with the curious exception of the emoluments of Heads of Colleges, as a fund to be distributed at their discretion. Each College, as its turn comes, may appoint three Commissioners of its own, who will be always in a minority, though, as they will be practically elected by the resident body, they will probably concur in schemes of redistribution. At the close of the proceedings the Privy Council will give the Report the force of law, after hearing any objections which may be urged by persons or bodies directly affected. None of those who are to suffer will be directly affected, nor will the actual Fellows of Colleges have a right to oppose the scheme, inasmuch as their vested interests are protected. The best illustration of the extraordinary powers which the Government propose to confer on themselves is furnished by Lord SALISBURY's opening speech. There is not a word in the Bill about the suppression of sinecure fellowships; and yet Lord SALISBURY candidly avowed that the transfer of endowments to the amount of many thousands a year was the principal object of the Bill. It follows that Commissioners will be appointed who will exercise apparently arbitrary powers, in accordance not with the words of the Bill, which may be supposed, if it is carried, to express the intentions of Parliament, but with the Minister's speech, which expresses the intentions of the Government. It is worth while to observe that none of the speakers who objected to the large powers of the Commissioners noticed the strange contrast between Lord SALISBURY's statement and the Bill. It is indeed possible that he may himself have rated too highly the control which the present Government will exercise over their nominees. In the course of seven years there will be changes in the Commission itself, and it is possible that by that time a majority may have received their instructions from a Liberal Government. The disclosure of the opinions of the Commissioners before they have been appointed sufficiently proves that they will be pledged to execute Lord SALISBURY's scheme of abolishing sinecure fellowships. It is apparently useless to ask for hesitation or delay. Mr. LYULPH STANLEY, who has a carefully considered scheme of his own, practically adopts the fundamental assumption of the Government. If the funds of the Colleges and Universities are absolutely at the disposal of Parliament, long-continued usage of course creates no presumption in favour of any existing system.

Those peers who criticized Lord SALISBURY's plan nevertheless, with the exception of Lord COLCHESTER, acquiesced in the appointment of a Commission of unlimited powers

which will beforehand have accepted Lord SALISBURY'S scheme. Some of them expressed a hope that fellowships would only be limited in the term of occupation; but Lord SALISBURY absolutely refused the smallest concession. As a general rule, the tenure of fellowships ought to be temporary, and not excessive in duration. At Cambridge lay fellowships tenable for life are few in number, and the possible and occasional life tenancy is further limited in practice by non-fulfilment of the statutory conditions. The great majority of professional laymen marry as soon as they can afford to maintain a family; and in most Colleges fellowships become vacant when the holder possesses a certain amount of property. Up to the present time clerical Fellows retire on acceptance of College livings or of other benefices; and many of them have up to that time been engaged in the discharge of academic duties. If it is thought desirable to diminish still further the number of life fellowships, the increase in the number of prizes will counterbalance a certain reduction of value. In any case a power of prolonging the tenure of fellowships in particular cases ought to be vested in some competent authority. If the principle of maintaining sinecure fellowships were conceded, it would probably not be difficult to agree on some reasonable compromise. It is true that, as Lord SALISBURY said, professional prizes are given in the form of higher and perhaps more laborious employment; but the object of College prizes is to stimulate the exertions of University students; and while those who are destined for an academic career may properly conform to the analogy of other professions, the condition of residence at the University would exclude the great body of competitors from all share in the endowments. The fellowships would consequently not serve their present purpose as prizes; and a limited competition would scarcely maintain the actual standard of eminence. In practice sinecure fellowships have served the double purpose of promoting the highest education, and of enabling a small and meritorious class to enter life with advantages which are ordinarily obtained only by the fortune of birth. It is at least doubtful whether any direct addition to the machinery of teaching would be an equivalent for the abolition of a powerful motive for learning.

It would be absurd to deny that the German Universities, which dispose of no sinecures, excel Oxford and Cambridge in the production of prodigies of attainment, and probably in the average diligence of the students; but, if German graduates have no fellowships, they enjoy many exclusive privileges. A University education is the indispensable condition of civil employment by the State, and it is accepted as a substitute for a part of the term of compulsory service in the army. One of Prince BISMARCK'S strongest measures in his contest with the Roman Catholic clergy is the law which compels candidates for the priesthood to receive an education in a secular University. It would be impossible to practise similar compulsion in England. It is always probable that a national institution suits the character and circumstances of the community in which it exists. An imitation of the University system of Germany would probably fail in England. Lord SALISBURY'S remark that nobody would now think of establishing sinecure fellowships for the first time would apply with equal force to higher dignities and more important forms of possession. The numerous States which have in modern times invented constitutions for themselves have, with the exception of the Monarchy of France at the Restoration, never succeeded in creating an hereditary Upper Chamber; and yet there is reason to believe that the English House of Lords is the happiest of accidents. The presumption in favour of that which exists is of course liable to be rebutted; but, in discriminating between a living and useful institution and an obsolete form, the true test is the modern improvement or deterioration of results. Within living memory the qualifications of Fellows and the beneficial influence of fellowships have been constantly raised and augmented.

THE NEW FRENCH MINISTRY.

M DUFAURE was not able to meet the new Chambers with a Ministry, and the impression of his being behind time which this fact suggested is strengthened by the composition of the Cabinet which has now been formed. It would have been a very proper Ministry in the days of the old Assembly. Four of M. BUFFET'S former colleagues

would have been held to give it solidity, while four recruits from the Left Centre, including M. CHRISTOPHE, would have imparted to it that dash of moderate Liberalism which was all that the Assembly wanted to satisfy its political aspirations, and which, if the Conservatives had been wise in time, might have equally satisfied the new Chambers. The Conservatives were not wise in time, and consequently the Liberalism of the new Chambers is of a more decided colour; and it remains to be seen whether the majority will not soon display a natural, if not reasonable desire, to have a Ministry as decided as themselves. M. DUFAURE has before now been almost as obnoxious to the Left as M. BUFFET himself; and though he may be a different man in presence of a Liberal majority from what he was in presence of a Conservative majority, he is neither young enough nor pliable enough to take very readily to new ways. No man in either Chamber has a greater power of saying stinging things, and in the Assembly this faculty was always called into exercise by some offence given by the Left. If M. DUFAURE intends to throw the same incisive speeches at the Liberal majority which he occasionally threw at the Liberal minority, he will find it hard to retain power on anything like Parliamentary conditions. M. LÉON SAY ought to have some skill in smoothing down Cabinet quarrels, if the gift can be gained by practice; for from the day he entered the late Ministry to the day that the Ministry came to an end, hardly a week passed without rumours that he was about to resign and assurances that he had made things straight again. What part he will play in a Cabinet in which his opinions will presumably be of more weight than they were in the last it is impossible to say. He has considerable reputation in finance; but financial skill and Parliamentary strategy do not always go together. The Duke DECAZES has been a very popular Foreign Minister, and his presence would have been essential to the success of almost any Cabinet as a guarantee of the continuity of French foreign policy. He was elected for an arrondissement of Paris in the second ballot by the aid of M. GAMBETTA, and it has not yet been ascertained at what point his devotion to the duties of his special department will be overcome by his distrust of Radicalism. General DE CISEY is believed to have no politics. He is a soldier, and as such his first duty is to obey orders. Nominally, of course, he is M. DUFAURE'S colleague; really he is Marshal MACMAHON'S deputy. He too, however, has a special function as regards foreign Powers, inasmuch as he is associated with that exceedingly gradual reorganization of the French army which has perhaps done as much as the Duke DECAZES'S tact to convince Germany that she has nothing to fear on the side of France.

These make the contingent which M. BUFFET'S Cabinet has bequeathed to its successor. The best known of the new names is that of M. CHRISTOPHE. As a former President of the Left Centre he would once have been a great power in the Cabinet, but it is difficult to predict what place the Left Centre will occupy in the new Legislature. According to some observers, they have not lost as much ground in the elections as is generally supposed. According to others, the group, as it has hitherto been known, is virtually annihilated, and, if a Left Centre continues to exist, it will not be the Left Centre with which we have so long been familiar. It is quite possible that the policy of the Conservatives in dissociating themselves from the Left so completely as they did may prove to have greatly injured the Left Centre in the elections. It used to be said that France was Left Centre, and in so far as this meant that the type of Republicanism advocated by the Left Centre was the type which in 1873 would have been popular with the constituencies, the statement was probably true. But the credit of the Left Centre depended as much perhaps on their supposed power to convince the Conservatives that a Republican Government was inevitable as on their supposed discernment in making that discovery for themselves, and when their influence over the Conservatives turned out to be very slight, the electors may insensibly have learned to look to a stronger variety of Republicanism as a better foundation for a permanent Government. It is curious that, though the elections are over and the results known, we should still be speaking in this uncertain strain. But the real character of a newly elected Legislature has seldom been so completely a matter of conjecture as in the case of the new French Chambers. There is so large a proportion of new names among the deputies, and so much ignorance exists as to the precise relation between the professions of

the candidates during the canvass and their future action in divisions, that, beyond the fact that France is decisively Republican, nothing can be said to be placed beyond doubt. M. RICARD, the new Minister of the Interior, is the only member of the Cabinet who as yet has a seat in neither Chamber. The elections have proved that this office is not so important as it used to be considered in the days when the peasants voted at the bidding of the local authorities, and the majority of the returns were arranged in the Minister's bureau. But the Minister of the Interior has so much power over the press and over the many incidents which bring Frenchmen into contact with the Administration, that the popularity of a Cabinet depends on him in a greater degree than upon the Prime Minister himself. If M. BUFFET had not united the two offices in his own person, he would have been very much less hated than he succeeded in making himself. M. RICARD will have it in his power greatly to soften the impression of unbending rigidity which M. DUFAURE's presence at the head of affairs will be calculated to create. M. WADDINGTON has the recommendation of having been a Minister under M. THIERS and a colleague of M. CASIMIR PÉRIER. The most important thing about the appointment is that he is a Protestant, and that the nomination of a Protestant to the Ministry of Education may be taken as an indication that the new Cabinet will not be specially clerical in its policy. As regards the actual administration of the department, there is no reason why a Protestant should not show as much consideration to all the reasonable claims of the clergy as a Roman Catholic. But when it is remembered that to be a Protestant in France is at least as great a drawback to political success as to be a Catholic is in England, it is a strong step to put M. WADDINGTON in the office which of all others, except that of Public Worship, brings the holder into contact with the Church. It is possible that this appointment may prove the most prudent that M. DUFAURE has made. There is no great danger that the clergy will quarrel with the Ministry, because they must be very well aware that in the present condition of affairs they are not likely to get one more to their mind. But any suspicion of clericalism would at once have embroiled the Ministry with M. GAMBETTA. Just as M. THIERS claimed to have discovered that the Republic was the Government which united Frenchmen most, so M. GAMBETTA claims to have discovered that resistance to clericalism is the policy which unites Republicans most. In his speech at Lyons the other day he professed to see in the recent elections a conspicuous triumph of this policy. It is not the aspect which the elections wore to the eyes of spectators; and it may be suspected that M. GAMBETTA chooses to describe them in these terms because he knows that, so long as he can keep religious matters before the eyes of his followers, the political differences which separate them from one another will be less apparent. It will take some very decided measures of deference to the clergy to convince Frenchmen that there is any danger of improper submission to ecclesiastical pretensions on the part of a Ministry in which a Protestant is Minister of Education. Admiral FOURICHON, the new Minister of Marine, unites the seemingly inconsistent attributes of being a member of the Right Centre and of having been a Minister under M. GAMBETTA. His appointment may perhaps be accepted as conclusive evidence that the new Cabinet is not about to commit the blunders of which its predecessor was guilty, and to mix itself up with any shortsighted and unpatriotic attacks on the Government of National Defence.

Such is the Ministry which Marshal MACMAHON has persuaded himself to accept. As has been said, if he could have made equal advances to the Left six months ago, the results of the elections might have been less unfavourable to the policy which he personally favours. But the Conservatives around him could not be convinced that a judicious and timely compromise with the Conservative elements in the Left was the best issue they could expect. Whether it will be possible for the new Ministry to hold its own before a majority which must be described rather as critical and expectant than as positively favourable will probably depend on the promptness with which M. DUFAURE declares his acceptance of the particular Liberal proposals which he is willing to introduce into his programme.

AMERICAN OFFICIAL SCANDALS.

IN unanimously preferring articles of impeachment against General BELKNAP the American House of Representatives has undoubtedly expressed the indignant feeling of the whole country. The guilt of the delinquent is not denied, and the circumstances of his crime are in the highest degree simple and vulgar. As Secretary of War General BELKNAP had the patronage of certain frontier posts which provided opportunities of lucrative traffic with the Indians. In one instance at least the SECRETARY received an annual payment of 1,000*l.* from the occupier of the post, and it is naturally suspected that he may have made other arrangements of the same kind. The ultimate paymasters were perhaps the Indian purchasers, though it may be contended that the privileged trader would, even if he had not paid for his appointment, have charged for his goods the highest price which he could obtain. The distress which the PRESIDENT is said to feel since the discovery of the guilt of his Minister may possibly be aggravated by regret for the undue haste with which he believed his excuses and accepted his resignation. It seems that there was a technical doubt whether the process of impeachment is applicable to a criminal functionary after his retirement from office. The difficulty seemed to be imaginary, for no legislator would intentionally make the prosecution of a culprit depend on any condition subsequent to the date of his offence; but the objection was so far plausible that the Senate referred to a Committee the question whether the articles of impeachment could be received. It has since been determined that the impeachment shall proceed, and an ordinary criminal prosecution has been simultaneously instituted; though unexpected difficulties have subsequently arisen in the way of both modes of procedure. According to General BELKNAP's first statement, the bribes had been received without his privity by his wife; but he professed to acknowledge his own formal responsibility for the transaction. The simple-minded PRESIDENT seems at once to have believed the improbable assertion, and consequently to have accepted the resignation, instead of either dismissing the offender, or suspending him from office while the House considered the propriety of an impeachment. General BELKNAP soon afterwards found it impossible to sustain the fiction which had sufficed to impose on the PRESIDENT. He now confesses his guilt; and it perhaps matters little whether he is sentenced by the Senate or merely relegated to infamous obscurity.

Only a few days before the occurrence of the latest scandal, General BABCOCK, the PRESIDENT's private secretary, had been acquitted at St. Louis on a charge of complicity with certain distillers who have, with the connivance of the revenue officers, defrauded the Treasury of large sums. It was proved that the defendant had sent to some of the persons concerned in the fraud telegraphic messages which, according to the theory of the prosecution, were intended to warn them of the impending visits of inspectors or detective officers from Washington. One person concerned had inclosed considerable sums of money to General BABCOCK; but, according to his own evidence, he had afterwards withdrawn the drafts from the envelopes before they were transmitted by post. The evidence of the PRESIDENT, taken by commission, was highly favourable to the accused; but the Court rejected the greater part of the proof as irrelevant, and only received the remainder as evidence to character. General BABCOCK is entitled to the benefit of his acquittal; but it is unfortunate that the proved corruption of subordinate officers should have involved in suspicion the PRESIDENT's most confidential assistant. The integrity and energy of Mr. BRISTOW, the Secretary of the Treasury, will probably during his tenure of office discourage the repetition of the frauds which he has exposed and punished; but it has been proved that the simplest method of evading taxes due to the Government is to divide the spoil with revenue officers. Mr. BRISTOW's immediate predecessors, Mr. BOUTWELL and Mr. RICHARDSON, professedly made appointments to office on political grounds; and Mr. BOUTWELL, though he is not suspected of personal dishonesty, with the sanction of the PRESIDENT set the example of deliberately violating the law by re-issuing a large amount of greenbacks which had been withdrawn from circulation. There was no reason to suppose that political nominees of the dominant party would be competent or scrupulous; nor is Mr. BRISTOW probably surprised by the discovery that his subordinates are open to bribes. It is not known whether he believed

before the verdict in the guilt imputed to General BABCOCK. With the indefensible acts of his colleague at the War Office he had no official connexion.

The enormous and impudent robberies perpetrated by TWEED and his accomplices at the expense of the City of New York were regarded in the United States with a feeling of amusement which interfered with due moral indignation. It was known that the swindling demagogues of the Corporation, in making vast fortunes for themselves, executed the intentions of their constituents, to whom they imparted a share of the plunder. After the full exposure of his frauds, TWEED was returned to the State Senate by the same Irish majority which had originally placed him in power. The inhabitants of other States and cities congratulated themselves on their exemption from the supremacy of an ignorant and dishonest immigrant rabble. The withdrawal of the better classes from public life, and the general disrepute which attached to professional politicians, failed to suggest the inference that legislators and functionaries who were not paid in repute or general esteem would be likely to pay themselves in money. A deeper feeling than the contemptuous irritation which had been provoked by the New York scandals was aroused by the exposure of the motives which had induced Congress to grant subsidies to the Pacific Railway. A large number of members had been bribed by the agents of the Company with shares or money; and one conspicuous Republican patriot, after selling his vote, had made an elaborate series of false statements to conceal his guilt. About the same time several Northern adventurers who had by the votes of the negroes obtained office in the Southern States committed flagrant acts of pillage. The discredit which consequently attached to the Republican party produced the reaction of 1874, which resulted in the return of a large Democratic majority to the House. The people of the United States sincerely dislike fraud and misgovernment; but unfortunately their institutions place them, except in times of excitement, at the mercy of professional politicians and election managers. The crime of General BELKNAP will perhaps in its consequences affect the Presidential election. A President who has during his term of office been constantly associated with persons of bad character will have acquired a reputation for bad luck, which is almost as conclusive against his claim to re-election as participation in the conduct of his favourites. It is not impossible that the discredit may extend to the Republican party; but unfortunately there can be no security against the recurrence of official corruption. It is now stated that strong suspicion of fraud attaches to other public functionaries.

Some improvement might probably result from the adoption of the scheme of Civil Service Reform which has been steadily discontenanced by General GRANT at the instance of his principal supporters in the Senate. A successful competitor in an examination has a fair chance of being personally honest; and the occupation of a permanent office with gradual promotion would furnish additional motives for good conduct. At present the local party managers have a large share in the distribution of patronage; and their nominees are appointed either because they have made themselves useful in elections or because they have purchased the good will of their patrons. During their continuance in office they are compelled to pay a heavy percentage on their salaries for the expenses of the party organization; and they probably find in the unavoidable tax an excuse for reconquering themselves, as occasion may offer, by the acceptance of bribes. It would evidently be impossible to practise similar extortion if the Civil Service were independent and permanent; but until a higher moral standard of administrative integrity is established corruption will not be extirpated. Whatever may be done in relation to clerks and excise officers, Cabinet Ministers cannot be appointed by literary competition. The ex-Secretary of War is virtually convicted of receiving bribes, and the late Secretary of the Interior is charged with similar transactions. It is not for foreigners to suggest the securities which ought to be taken against the continuance of iniquities which are regarded in the United States with just and creditable disapproval. If the services of the best class of Americans could be obtained by the Republic, no further reform would be needed; but the moral and intellectual aristocracy will not court the patronage of election managers, and, if they entered into the competition for employment, they would not succeed. The measures of retrenchment which have lately been

carried through the House of Representatives seem to be highly unseasonable. When men in high office take bribes, the presumption is not that public servants are overpaid. The Democratic majority has reduced the salary of the Minister in London, while General SCHENCK, having resigned his post under circumstances not yet fully explained, is crossing the Atlantic to vindicate his dealings with the Emma Mine; and it has been decided that the PRESIDENT shall receive the absurdly inadequate income of 5,000*l.* a year when his private secretary has been tried for corruption, and when his SECRETARY for WAR has confessed his guilt. In countries where official purity is the rule, certain American institutions have not yet been adopted. It is worth while to consider the tendency of further changes in the direction of democracy. Chivalry, according to BURKE, was the cheap defence of nations. The administration of public affairs by gentlemen may perhaps also tend to cheapness.

ITALY.

THE second Session of the twelfth Italian Parliament was opened by the KING on Monday last. That the twelfth Italian Parliament should be now sitting is not the least wonderful among the many wonderful things of the times; and the KING was able to address the Chambers in language which must have been pleasant to hear, and which, if a little coloured by hope, was yet based on a solid foundation of fact. Italy is prosperous within; and, for the first time since an Italian Parliament existed, the Chambers have before them a reasonable prospect of seeing the current expenditure nearly balanced by the receipts. That it will be quite balanced is perhaps too much to hope for. As the KING pointed out, new burdens are to be assumed by the Government, and, even if the receipts did balance the expenditure, there would still be the floating debt and a depreciated currency between Italy and perfect solvency. Still, if the immense difficulties which Italy has had to face are taken into account, the financial position is now better than could a few years ago have been anticipated, and great credit is due to SELLA for his energetic efforts to keep Italy in the right path, and to MINGHETTI for the assiduity with which he has followed in the steps of SELLA. Italy is on the point of renewing its Treaties of Commerce with its nearest neighbours, and the KING was enabled to announce that he saw the way at once to make good bargains with France, Austria, and Switzerland, and to maintain intact the principles of free trade. It is fortunate that in the case of France it was not necessary to solve the difficult problem of combining good bargaining with free trade during the government of M. THIERS; and it is satisfactory to find that the strenuous efforts of the Austrian Protectionists to take the opportunity of a depressed state of trade to force Austria into a retrograde path are not likely to be successful. With the army the KING is well satisfied, and his satisfaction is derived from what he has himself seen. Italy has worked very hard, spent much, and thought much in order to have an army able to maintain order at home and inspire respect abroad. The KING now tells his people that they have got a good army, and he speaks with the authority of an experience drawn both from successful and from unsuccessful wars. It is now nearly ten years since the raw army of Italy learned at the hands of Austria a severe but very useful lesson, and the KING, when he praises the army he now has, must mean that his troops would be able to fight on a footing of something like equality whoever might be the foe. The army being in good order, it is now, as the KING modestly puts it, time to attend to the navy. It is exceedingly improbable that Italy will for some time to come be able to afford the costly luxury of a new ironclad fleet for offensive operations. What money she has to spend for maritime purposes must be mainly spent on harbour fortifications and on vessels of defence. She may reasonably hope that, if she is prudent and pacific, she will not be without the aid of an ally possessed of much greater maritime power than herself should war be unhappily forced on her.

It is not, however, enough for the twelfth Italian Parliament to know that the present position of the country and its army is reasonably good. Italy aspires to more than this. She claims to rank as one of the Great Powers, and it is in this capacity that the KING states that she has addressed the Porte in support of the ANDRASSY Note. The Porte, owing to the curious intervention of the tiny State

of Piedmont in the Crimean War, cannot dispute the claim, and it may view the adhesion of Italy to the course taken by Austria with the complacency derived from the knowledge that Italy, like Austria, has done something to foment the insurrection which the Great Powers are now endeavouring to suppress. Whether as a signatory of the Treaty of Paris or as a Great Power, it is convenient that Italy should be invited to take notice that the bargain is reform on the one side and suppression of the insurrection on the other. Naturally, such pleasing tributes to the new importance of Italy as the visits in the year just finished of the Emperor of AUSTRIA and the German EMPEROR were not passed over by the KING; and when he thought of the more powerful and the more recent of his guests, VICTOR EMMANUEL may have congratulated himself on not having to occupy the attention of his Parliament with ecclesiastical squabbles. Benevolence ought always to accompany greatness, and Italy is now endeavouring to show that, if she is a Great Power, she is also willing to be a kind and useful one. The Italian Government acceded at once to the request of the KHEWITZ to nominate a Commissioner for the regulation of Egyptian finance. It has explained its readiness by pointing out that it seemed to it that Italy might act a useful part as a buffer between France and England in case disputes should arise between these two other Great Powers on Egyptian questions. That Italy owes much to France and to England every impartial Italian would readily admit. The debt to France is notorious to all the world, and the greatness of its obligation to England has lately been placed in a very clear light by the publication of Lord PALMERSTON'S letters. If Italy owes the origin of its unity and independence to France, it owes to England that they were not stifled immediately on their birth. The Cabinet of Lord PALMERSTON was engaged for years in seeing that the Emperor of the FRENCH did not kill his own political offspring. In its gratitude Italy now offers to appear in Egypt as the sedulous and impartial friend of those from whom it has received so many benefits. We have only to express our pleasure at this kind thought of us and our interests, and a little mild wonder at Italy having attained a position which qualifies her to step forward as a Great Power, and see in a brotherly sort of way that England and France do not fall out and do each other serious harm.

The principal measure which the KING had to recommend to his Parliament was the purchase of the railway system of Upper Italy. As this system is part of the same enterprise with a system of equal magnitude in Austria, the purchase has taken the form of an international arrangement, and the KING declares himself bound to carry out the convention he has made with the Emperor of AUSTRIA. The Government has also arranged for the purchase of the Roman and the Southern lines. Into the terms of the arrangements made it is not necessary to enter, further than to say that the basis is one by which the immediate outlay of cash is almost wholly avoided. An annuity is to be paid to provide for the obligations, and an issue of Italian Rentes gives such compensation to the shareholders as they have been able to exact. But it is the Companies who have been anxious to sell, as they have been labouring under financial difficulties, and have allowed the lines to get into bad order. Money will have to be provided for renewal and new equipment, and the Government has had to purchase the lines in order that the traffic of the country may be carried on. There are some advantages in the railways of a country belonging to the State, and Italy may perhaps one day find that it has benefited pecuniarily by having bought up its railways when they were to be had at a comparatively moderate cost. But for the moment the necessity of providing cash to put the lines in fair working order will be a serious burden on the Treasury, and the management of a great railway system by the State is a very anxious business. The dangers of jobbery, of abuse of political influence, and of the State being forced by clamour to reduce its tariffs below a remunerative level, are very serious, and are especially dangerous in a country like Italy, where there is great difficulty already in shaking off the bad traditions of the world of unscrupulous and over-numerous officials fostered by the petty Governments which formerly had possession of the country. It is not improbable that the question that will excite the liveliest discussion in the Italian Parliament will be not whether the arrangements for purchase should be sanctioned, or whether the terms are satisfactory, but how the railways

are to be worked when the State has got possession of them. The Government has recently had a warning of the losses it may sustain when it listens to appeals made on behalf of commercial undertakings. In deference to urgent representations made by prominent members of both political parties, the Government not long ago advanced a large sum to a Company carrying on a packet service in the Mediterranean on a scale which even in England or France would be thought considerable. In spite, however, of the assistance tendered to it, the Company had soon afterwards to declare itself insolvent, and the Government to all appearance did no good by a liberality which Italy could very ill afford. The Government may not have much reason to fear hostile criticism on its blunder, as it acted in accordance with the wishes of opponents as well as of friends. But the incident will be fresh in the memory of all who have to consider the precautions under which the management of the State lines is to be carried on. If the lines could but be well managed, there is probably nothing in the purchase to injure the financial position of the country; but it is so uncertain whether the lines will be well managed that it is impossible not to recognize that a new cloud threatens to overshadow Italian finance. It is a cloud that may fade away, and the clouds that threaten Italy have a singular turn for fading away; but it is also one that may grow larger and darker than it will be at all agreeable for Italians to contemplate.

THE BURIALS AGITATION.

THERE is something very significant, though perhaps injudiciously candid, in the jubilation of the Liberal organs over the result of the division on Mr. OSBORNE MORGAN'S Resolution. The nominal question at issue sinks out of sight, or is just touched upon in a passing way. The critical importance of the event is found, not in its bearing on the Burials question, but in the fact that it has afforded the scattered sections of the Liberal party an opportunity of again meeting each other in the same lobby. The estranged brethren have kissed each other, and the flock has once more been gathered to the fold at the call of the shepherd. "The Conservative party," screams the *Daily Telegraph*, with its hat in the air, "has been out-manceuvred." "A powerful force, combining the ardour of the Dissenters, the energy of the Home Rulers, and the statesmanship of the Whigs," has at last been brought together, if only for a single night, under Lord HARTINGTON'S guidance, and it is hoped that the sulky alienation of the Dissenters is now at an end. How to bring back the missing contingent has been for some time a crucial question for the Liberal party; and many ingenious minds have no doubt been brooding over it. The attempt to get up an agitation about the Slave-Trade Circular has, for obvious reasons, not been very successful. But Mr. OSBORNE MORGAN'S Resolution offered another chance, and has been more judiciously worked. We are indebted to the *Daily Telegraph* for the information that "it is especially good for the Liberals to give battle on a question of sentiment rather than of practical reform." It is in the sphere of sentiment that they have found inspiration for all their great achievements; and "the strength of the party is in its feelings, not in its opinions." "A strong sentiment unites all sections of Liberals, as pieces of iron of different quality can be fused by fierce heat." There can be no doubt that, as MOODY and SANKEY as well as Mr. GLADSTONE have shown, emotionalism is a great force in its way. When Mr. GLADSTONE came into office the party was roused to heroic ardour. Everybody felt that common things had ceased to be, that human nature had been delightfully sublimated, and that the perfection of everything was very near at hand. No doubt this sort of excitement is very stimulating while it lasts, and there are various symptoms that the Liberal party has still a hankering for another bout of it. These have been dull times of late; and it is easy to understand the fondness with which fervent Liberals look back on the exhilaration of other days.

It is important to bear this attitude of the Liberal party in mind in studying its connexion with the Burials agitation. It is thought to be necessary to weld the different sections of the party together; and as the *Daily Telegraph* justly observes, there is nothing like getting up "a fierce heat" for such a purpose, and any fuel that happens to be handy will do very well. This is really the main cause of the agitation. What is called the Burials question is, in

fact, two questions, or at least a question with two faces. On the one side is the plain, practical question how public provision is to be made for interments; and on the other is the problem how to get up a sensational white heat for the engineering purposes of the Liberal party. What, then, is the grievance which is complained of? From of old church and churchyard have been regarded as one; until a comparatively modern period everybody was, as a rule, baptized at the parish font, married in the church, and buried in the churchyard, with the services of the Church in each case. There was no element of sectarian controversy in the matter; the services of the Church were open to all the population alike; and every one accepted these services as a natural part of an Englishman's birth-right. In the course of time people began to indulge their private tastes as regards preaching, and when they did not like the parish clergyman they went elsewhere. But still the main body of the population, however averse some of them might be to the parsons' sermons, clung instinctively to the national system of marriage and burial. They felt that they were more akin with their race if on these solemn occasions they were identified with the old, time-honoured services which had been so dear to many generations of their countrymen. The Church made no difficulties as to keeping open doors for every class, for this was indeed alike its privilege and duty. Nobody was compelled to come, but all who came were welcome. In those days philosophical Liberals had not discovered that a church could be a church without a creed. Nothing would then have been more startling to the minds of men than the notion that the temple in which they worshipped was only a fortuitous agglomeration of stones and lime, not especially identified with one sort of service or form of belief more than another. There is perhaps no stronger example of the way in which even clever people get confused and bewildered by the use of cant expressions than the sort of argument which was heard on Friday week, and which is constantly raised in discussions of this kind. Sir W. HARCOURT, for instance, was not ashamed to repeat the question which had already been asked by members from whom it came more naturally—Is not the Church degrading itself into a sect by proclaiming its belief in anything in particular? Mr. CROSS had referred to the practice of the Quakers in regard to their own graveyards, and Sir WILLIAM, with pathetic amazement, very much in the tone with which Mrs. SIDDOES used to frighten the drapers by asking "Will it wash?" exclaimed, "What! is 'the National Church' to be dethroned from its rank 'as an establishment, and reduced to that of a sect?' Every Church must of course be a sect, in so far as it professes a distinctive religion; the difference between the Society of Friends and the Church of England is not that the former has peculiar tenets and the latter has not, but that the Church represents the common feeling and belief of the great body of the English people, while the Society of Friends represents only the opinions of a small and eccentric denomination. As soon as the principle is laid down that the Church of England is a mere question of masonry, a sort of St. James's Hall, which any set of people can have the use of for any performance they like, the Church is practically disestablished. There are weak-minded persons even in the Church of England who are deluded with the idea that it would remain a Church even though its pulpits were open to anybody and everybody to preach what they pleased. It is obvious, however, that though the Church might still remain in a certain way a useful public institution, just as a town-hall is, it would certainly not be the Church of England in the sense in which it has always existed. And this is what those who are in earnest in enforcing the claims of Dissenters to the parish churchyards on their own terms have in view. It is important to observe that the Resolution, as it was proposed, started with a mis-statement. It asserted that "the parish churchyards of 'England and Wales had been appropriated to the use of 'the entire body of the parishioners.'" This is true as far as it goes; but it leaves entirely out of view the rather material fact that this right exists only on specified conditions. Again, the Resolution laid down that it is "just 'and right, while making proper provision for the maintenance of order and decency,' to make certain changes; but the speech of the mover showed that this was a mere form of words, and that there was no intention whatever to take any precautions to maintain order and decency, but that it was part of the scheme to throw open the

churchyards for the performance of any kind of ceremony or demonstration which the persons conducting a funeral might choose to resort to. Mr. OSBORNE MORGAN said very frankly:—"I will tell the House what safeguards I would 'propose. None whatever. This is a matter on which 'we might safely trust to the good sense and good feeling 'of our fellow-countrymen.'" It is notorious, however, that there are sections of the community who have peculiar notions of decency and order which are not shared by the rest of mankind. As to the final conclusion, it was also delusive, because what it proposed was not an enforcement of existing rights, as was pretended, but an innovation based on grounds of supposed expediency. The whole Resolution was therefore disingenuous and illogical.

The HOME SECRETARY, by reducing the subject to its matter-of-fact elements, immediately brought to the ground the artificial structure, all canvas and daubing, which Mr. OSBORNE MORGAN and his friends had so laboriously constructed for the occasion. The sober facts of the case may be simply stated. Either there is something distinctive about a parish churchyard or there is not. If there is, why should people who affect to despise its character and associations, and who sneer, with Mr. BRIGHT, at "What d'y'e call it, consecration?" be so anxious to be buried there when they can easily be buried somewhere else? If there is not, what does it matter in what enclosure a body is laid? Again, if it is such a matter of conscience with the Dissenters to have their own peculiar services, it is equally a matter of conscience with Churchmen that their similar rights should be respected. They are in possession; prescription is on their side; the churchyards are in law freeholds of the rector or vicar just as the churches are; and if these rights are taken away, it will be the first step towards disestablishment. Disestablishment, of course, may or may not be desirable, but at least it should be done openly and deliberately, in full view of what it means. There is nothing either in the marriage or burial services which offends any body of Christians; and it is notorious that a large number of Dissenters prefer them to the extempore utterances of their own ministers, and that in many places where there is a public cemetery, containing both consecrated and unconsecrated ground, Dissenters resent being buried in the part reserved for them, which remains empty, while the other is crowded with their bodies. It would seem to be natural therefore that where there is a choice of accommodation, Dissenters should go where they can be comfortable in their own way, and they suffer no grievance in having to do so. The question thus resolves itself into what should be done in the comparatively small and continually decreasing number of cases in which the parish churchyard is the only available place of sepulture. Mr. CROSS's statistics show that, as the churchyards fill up, and population increases, the churchyards are closed and cemeteries have to be provided; and no reasonable person can doubt that a public necessity of this kind ought to be provided for systematically. Before very long, at the present rate of burial, all the churchyards will be filled up; and then there will be no question of anybody being buried in them. Nothing can be more preposterous than to make an organic revolution for the sake of adjusting a small detail of machinery which is every day settling itself by the mere course of events. It is satisfactory to know that the Government has undertaken to deal with the question in the only way in which it requires to, or can safely, be dealt with—its practical aspect—and it is to be hoped, as Mr. CROSS said, that we shall hear no more of these miserable little ecclesiastical disputes which are manufactured only as an instrument of political agitation.

THE SLAVE CIRCULAR IN THE LORDS.

THE history of the Slave Circulars is a proof that it is not always an advantage to have several alternatives to choose from. The Government were in this position as regards the issuing of instructions relative to the treatment of fugitive slaves. They had in the first instance to decide whether to do something or to do nothing. It has been contended that here was their first blunder. They might, it is said, have issued no instructions on the subject, and then there would have been neither First nor Second Circular, nor Royal Commission, nor debates in either House. This criticism has a good deal of wisdom in it, but it is the sort of wisdom that commonly comes after the

event. It is now seen that the action of the Government has been unfortunate, and it is very natural to ask why they could not have let things alone. Supposing, however, that they had let things alone, and that thereupon some naval commander had got into difficulties about an escaped slave, it would have been equally natural to ask why a Cabinet which had been warned by the Indian Government that the question threatened to become troublesome had been so weak as to leave it to the discretion of the first blundering naval officer whom chance might take into the Persian Gulf? But the propriety of framing a Circular of some kind does not involve the propriety of issuing the wonderful document which made its appearance in the summer. Still it would be unkind to lay much stress upon this point, because, as soon as the Cabinet came to know what was in the First Circular, they were as much ashamed of it as any one else could be. It was hastily buried, and no one but the ATTORNEY-GENERAL attended the funeral. Thereupon the Government had once more to choose between action and inaction. The same reasons which had made it expedient to put out the First Circular made it equally expedient not to leave the ground unoccupied when it had been withdrawn. The error on this occasion was that, while professing to give their commanders positive instructions how to treat such slaves as might come on board, the Government did not think it necessary to make their instructions precise as well as positive. They were of one mind as to throwing over the ATTORNEY-GENERAL, and as to maintaining both the extra-territorial character of a QUEEN'S ship on the high seas and the effect of that extra-territorial character on the status of slaves received on board. But they could not come to any conclusion as to what should be done with a slave who has got on board a QUEEN'S ship in territorial waters. It was easy enough to say, Don't let a slave get on board if you can possibly help it; but the united intelligence of the Cabinet was baffled by the hypothetical inquiry of an imaginary commander, If I have not been able to help it, what am I to do with him afterwards? The excitement caused by the publication of the First Circular prevented them from answering, Give him up to his owner; an appreciation of practical difficulties prevented them from answering, Keep him on board until such time as you can land him in some territory where his freedom will be respected. In this dilemma they issued an order which either threw the responsibility of a decision upon the commander of the ship, or, if he tried to follow the letter of his instructions, bade him put the slave on shore and then shut his eyes, so that he might not see what became of him. Even if this Second Circular had been allowed to pass unchallenged, it could only have put off the evil day. A commander whose sympathies were with the slave would have read the direction not to give him up to his master as tantamount to a direction not to turn him out of the ship so long as there was any chance of his master catching him. A commander who simply wished to obey orders would have put a slave on shore under circumstances only colourably different from a formal surrender. In one way or the other the question would have again presented itself for settlement, and the Cabinet would have found that they had gained nothing by postponing it. Chance, in the shape of a popular dislike of the Second Circular almost as great as that felt towards the First, saved the Government from this misfortune. Whether they ultimately invent a policy for themselves or are content to take one at the hands of the Royal Commission, the whole question of the treatment of fugitive slaves will have to be determined once for all. Everybody now knows, or may know, that English naval officers all over the world are waiting for orders whether, when their ships are lying in territorial waters, they are to give up escaped slaves to their masters, or to keep them on board until such time as they can set them free. It will be impossible to keep secret the answer which must ultimately be given to this inquiry, and it may be doubted whether in the end the Government will have really avoided responsibility by the expedient of asking some one else to frame their answer for them. Slave Powers will not be mollified, when their demands for the return of fugitive slaves are refused, by the intimation that this new policy is not the work of HER MAJESTY'S Government. The English people will not like the surrender of fugitive slaves any better because it takes place at the suggestion of a Royal Commission.

Down to the debate in the House of Lords on Tuesday the object of the Government in appointing the Commis-

sion was at least intelligible. They had unexpectedly found it necessary to have a policy about fugitive slaves, and they had set half a dozen clever people to invent one from sheer inability to invent one for themselves. The only wonder was why, under these circumstances, the Second Circular had not shared the fate of the First. If the matter was so surrounded with uncertainty that only a Royal Commission could clear it up, why should the Government be anxious to move in it prematurely? Lord CAIRNS'S speech has entirely upset this theory. If the LORD CHANCELLOR'S closing sentences are any index to the feelings of the Cabinet, they burn with desire to see the policy which only a few weeks since Lord CAIRNS himself embodied in the Second Circular completely reversed. The last part of his speech might have been delivered at an anti-slavery meeting. "I am ashamed," he cried, "to speak even for a moment as if slavery were a question on which HER MAJESTY'S Government could entertain any doubt." This argues a really remarkable advance from the time when HER MAJESTY'S Government entertained so much doubt about slavery that they ordered every commander of a QUEEN'S ship not to admit a fugitive slave on board unless his life would be in manifest danger if he were refused admission, and not to allow him to continue on board a moment after the danger was past. A slave who, in consequence of this Circular, has found himself sent on shore with the knowledge that before he has left the ship many hours he will be once more in his master's custody, will be disposed to agree with Lord CAIRNS that slavery is a question on which HER MAJESTY'S Government have a very decided opinion. The difference is that the slave will believe that HER MAJESTY'S Government are on the side of the master, whereas Lord CAIRNS is apparently under the impression that they are on the side of the slave. "HER MAJESTY'S Government," he goes on, "have not concealed, they do not desire to conceal, their policy, and to that policy they intend to adhere." Really this is the most perplexing assertion that has ever been made by a Cabinet Minister. All the world has supposed that the Government had a policy; that this policy was contained in the Second Circular and was abandoned by reason of the bad reception which the Second Circular met with; that the Second Circular met with this reception because it was supposed to favour the slave-owner, and that a Royal Commission had been appointed to spare the Government the annoyance of having to eat their words. Now Lord CAIRNS comes forward with a theory of the Second Circular which is opposed alike to the letter of the document, to the opinion which has universally been formed of it, and to the interpretation put upon it by one of his own colleagues in the House of Lords not two hours later. We are now, he trusts, about to take a step towards the time when we may anticipate the destiny of this country to consummate the overthrow of slavery; and this step will be merely a justification of the policy set forth in the Second Circular. It is conceivable that the Royal Commissioners may recommend that a slave shall not be dismissed from a QUEEN'S ship until his freedom is absolutely assured. It is conceivable that they may recommend that, in order not to offend slave-owning Powers, a slave received on board a QUEEN'S ship in territorial waters shall be put on shore as soon as his pursuer's back is turned. But it is not conceivable that a body of Commissioners should make the latter recommendation, and at the same time believe that they are consummating "the overthrow of that nefarious system which has been at once the curse and the disgrace of humanity." This is a triumph of rhetorical combination which only men of Lord CAIRNS'S calibre can achieve, and which even they cannot maintain for more than a few rapturous moments.

CHRISTIANITY BETWEEN TWO FOES.

IN an address which he delivered some years ago before a religious Congress at Munich Dr. Döllinger starts from the assertion that by the cradle of Christian theology stood two mighty foes, heathen philosophy and the heretical gnosis, with both of which it had to contend, and from both also had much to learn. No student of ecclesiastical history will question the correctness of his statement. But a still broader truth is conveyed in a remark we came across the other day, which applies, not only to the early Church, but to the whole course of Christian history from the beginning till now. Christianity, it was observed, has in every age been confronted by two rival religions; its morality has been threatened by the higher Paganism, or worship of beauty; its doctrinal system by a scientific Theism, or worship of what claims to be pure and absolute truth.

With both of these it has always been in conflict, and yet to both it has been constrained to own its obligations; and this mutual interchange of blows and courtesies was never more conspicuous than in our own day. A distinguishing feature of the last half-century has been the revival of artistic taste and culture within the Church throughout Europe, of which the so-called Ritualistic movement is one subordinate phase; but alongside of this ecclesiastical restoration there has grown up a religion of art independent of all theological restraints, and looking on them much as the Roman and Florentine *literati* of the Renaissance looked on the reforms of Savonarola. Meanwhile the dominant scientific school is impatient of any Deity that cannot be resolved into an impersonal abstraction, and declines to proffer more than "a silent worship at the altar of the Unknowable and Unknown." Yet, at the same time, the exponents of the extreme form of scientific Atheism loudly assert their claim to be the prophets of a new and exclusively true religion. And, however much we may smile at the half-grotesque details of the Comtist creed, with its elaborate mimicry of the hierarchy, the discipline, and the ritual of Catholicism, no one can fail to be struck with so unexpected a homage to the inextinguishable cravings of the religious sentiment, which it as fully recognizes as it entirely fails to satisfy. Nor can the Church, which has in former periods accepted the services of an Augustine, an Aquinas, and a Pascal, affect to ignore in our own day the need for scientific champions of her cause. It may perhaps be said that these opposite forms of faith or scepticism, in whichever light we choose to regard them, are now more confident and impetuous in their assault than has usually been the case before, and that they more distinctly assume the functions, not of mere negative criticism, but of rival creeds. Whether or not Mr. Mill could be fairly considered a Theist, he inculcated a kind of religious and ethical system of his own, often borrowing the language, if not the ideas, of the historical religions which he rejected. And the same may be said of some living writers who would be classed more or less in the same category with him. And thus again the artistic religion of Paganism finds a passionate apologist in Mr. Swinburne. But if there is some difference in their methods of warfare, the same triangular duel, so to call it, between Christianity and its two powerful rivals has been in progress continually since the first preaching of the Gospel. The two mighty antagonists stood, to repeat Dr. Döllinger's language, by the cradle of the nascent faith; but the infant Hercules proved strong enough to coerce, if not to strangle, them, or rather succeeded in bending them to the service of a power yet mightier than themselves. Some change there has been no doubt in their relative importance as mankind has gradually advanced from what has been termed the mythological to the physical stage. Pagan art was a far more formidable opponent to reckon with in the first century than Pagan philosophy; the opposition of science, which cannot always be thrust aside as false, gives much greater trouble to the apologists of Revelation in the nineteenth. Let us begin with art.

From the earliest period of which any records remain art has been a powerful factor in the religious development of mankind. It has been by turns the instrument and the tyrant of the national faith, or sometimes both together. Greek religion, which was the worship of natural beauty, expressed itself in those unrivalled artistic forms which have riveted the admiring gaze of successive generations for above two thousand years; but the chisel which wrought so marvelously in its service was tracing the lines of its corruption. Its most exquisite art was the efflorescence of decay. The gods who were worshipped with sincere devotion were the deities of Homer, not the creations of Phidias, and it was only by crushing the genius of its artists that Egypt so long preserved the sombre grandeur of its hereditary faith. Christianity could afford to be less jealous, although the early Fathers betray an uneasy suspicion of whatever had been associated with Paganism. And accordingly the Catacombs, which were the first homes and workshops, as well as the sepulchres, of the new religion, are profusely ornamented with sculpture borrowing the imagery of existing forms of art. A refined and graceful Christian symbolism was by degrees superinduced on these ancient models; but it showed nothing of that darker and sterner aspect of Gospel teaching which was afterwards so abundantly exhibited in churches and cemeteries; there were no representations of hell or purgatory, or of the Last Judgment; and, what seems stranger, there were at first no representations of the Passion. The fiery persecution through which so many of those who were thus piously commemorated had passed to their rest was but distantly alluded to in an occasional picture of Daniel among the lions, or the three holy children walking unharmed amid the flames. All this was changed of course at a later date, and, in spite of the triumphs of mediæval architecture, it is true to say that, as the purely religious sentiment attained its ascendancy in the "ages of faith," æsthetic art on the whole declined, to revive with the irreligious, or at least non-religious, outburst of the Renaissance. Yet Christianity never forgot, like narrower and more artificial creeds, that its world-wide mission imposed on it at once the capacity and the obligation of embracing every genuine product of the human intellect and heart. The contrast is strikingly exemplified if we turn for a moment to Mahometanism, which could only hold its own against the inroads of idolatry by sternly proscribing art. The Arabian prophet, it has been truly said, could not prevent his disciples from worshipping images, except by absolutely forbidding them to make any; and thus "he preserved his religion from idolatry, but made it the deadly enemy of art," as it has remained ever since. The same criticism applies, in a

more limited sense, to the illogical compromise by which the Iconoclastic controversy was eventually settled in the Eastern Church, permitting pictorial, but prohibiting sculptured, representations of sacred subjects. We have said that the Renaissance was not a religious movement. In its artistic development there is a close analogy to what has already been noticed in the case of ancient Greece. Instead of using his art to do honour to religion, the painter made religious conceptions subservient to the display of his artistic power. The devotional and the æsthetic temper are distinct, though not incompatible, and seldom predominate in the same class of minds. It was perfectly natural that an ardent reformer like Savonarola should head a crusade against a classical revival which had brought not only the arts, but the tastes, the sensuality, and the scepticism of classical Greece in its train. It had already been strongly denounced and indeed forcibly suppressed by Paul II., though his successors in the Roman see for some time afterwards by no means followed his example in this respect. But neither Pope nor preacher could permanently arrest the degradation of religious art which rapidly followed, and the course of which may even be traced in a comparison of the earlier and later pictures of Raffælle. There cannot be said to be a school of religious painters in the present day, though some of the earlier works of the præ-Raffaellites may have suggested an anticipation not destined to be realized. In another department we have indeed witnessed a remarkable resuscitation of distinctively religious art, for it is quite true that Gothic architecture and the love of it are intimately connected with the Christian, as contrasted with the Pagan or secular, habit of mind; and Mr. Lecky is probably right in saying that "we mainly owe the revival of Gothic architecture to the Catholic revival of the present century," though the party dominant just now in the Roman Catholic Church have betrayed their instinctive aversion to history by opposing it.

In the early Christian centuries physical science was not sufficiently advanced to present any serious difficulties to the Christian apologist. St. Augustine could easily dispose of Manichean objections to the Mosaic cosmogony in a fashion which would never occur to a very inferior class of thinkers now; and in the sixth century Cosmas Indicopleustes—the special butt of Mr. Matthew Arnold's railery—carried public opinion with him when he argued against the antipodes in his *Topographia Christiana*, for this reason, among others, that St. Paul speaks of all men living "on the face of the earth," which proves that it is flat and not round. It is fair to add that when St. Virgilius, two centuries later, maintained the existence of the antipodes, the Pope declined to condemn him, but the religious world of the day was profoundly scandalized. We need not stay to dwell here on the critical instance of the Copernican controversy, but it is notorious that there has been a chronic feud between theologians and men of science, which one class of writers is fond of representing as the gradual triumph of science over a dwindling supernaturalism. This is the leading idea, for instance, frequently avowed and always implied, which runs through Mr. Lecky's History of Rationalism. On the other hand, as was pointed out before, if the Church has been jealous of scientific, as of artistic, encroachments on her own domain, she has numbered great philosophers as well as brilliant artists among her most devoted servants. In the fifteenth century Christianity appeared to be engaged in an internecine struggle with the Pagan revolt against her ethical code; in the eighteenth a Deistic philosophy questioned the primary articles of her creed. In our own day the controversy has passed into a new phase, and arguments which were unanswerable in the mouth of Bishop Butler fail to convince disputants who repudiate, not his reasoning, but the premises admitted in common at the time by himself and his opponents. It is not unreasonable, however, to believe that a religion which has survived so many open or insidious attacks will still be equal to the crisis. A way may be found in the future as in the past for acknowledging the legitimate claims of science without resolving into a beautiful but visionary "Aberglaube" the faith which has ennobled the life and consoled the last hours of sixty generations of Christians. Meanwhile it is significant that the great master of the positive philosophy in France should have passionately proclaimed the indestructible necessity of a religion, while the chief upholder of a similar system in England has left on record his conviction that the Christian religion has certainly been useful, if not indispensable, hitherto, and in part at least may not impossibly be true.

TIGER-SHOOTING.

THE round of amusements and spectacles endured or welcomed by the Prince of Wales on his Indian tour would have been incomplete had he not seen "a tiger or two," and felt "a little heat in the middle of the day"; two inconveniences to which, as Dickens put it, the perils of an Indian career are supposed to have dwindled down. We should hardly, perhaps, have selected Jeypore as the place where the Prince was likely to bag his first tiger, and we might rather have expected that some Commissioner of division, equally at home with land revenue and large game, would have organized for him a hunt on a grand scale. But the best season for this kind of sport will begin when the Royal trip ends; and people in England may be surprised to hear that there are many districts in India

where the tiger has no existence, and many hundreds and thousands of agriculturists who have never seen any bigger animal of the feline tribe than a civet cat, a lynx, or a chance leopard. Indeed the appearance of a tiger in some large and populous tracts in Lower Bengal, Behar, and Hindostan Proper, would cause as much amazement as the unlucky Esquimaux dog which, as we learn from *Land and Water*, was lately pursued and hunted to death by the farmers of North Hampshire, under the impression that a wolf was threatening their sheepfolds. Peace and security, and the natural progress of a population content with little and finding it in a bountiful soil, have been too much for sundry species of wild animals, except the hog, the antelope, the fox, and the jackal. Of the last two, indeed, the former may be seen any morning on the glacis or the esplanade of Fort William, and the jackal may be heard any night howling dismally in the most fashionable streets of Calcutta. There are, however, several provinces in which deaths by tigers still maintain a high average, and to which large parties resort in the months of March, April, and even the hottest days of May. The railway, too, has made these select hunting grounds more accessible, and it is now part of the programme of a tourist to have a shot at a tiger, as well as to admire the Taj Mahal, or buy on the spot photographs of the Cawnpore Memorial and the ruined Residency of Lucknow. There is, we think, little fear that the race of the royal Bengal tiger will speedily become extinct. He is to be found in the tract of the Sunderbunds, within fifty miles of Calcutta, though from the nature of an alluvial soil, intersected by a network of tidal creeks and covered with thick rushes and fine timber, these muddy islands are for practical purposes of sport entirely useless. But the Malda jungles, in the vicinity of the ancient city of Gour, the Rajmahal hills, the sandy alluvial flats of the Brahmaputra, the Megna, and several other large rivers in Eastern Bengal; the whole tract which lies at the foot of the first range of the Himalayas, beginning with Purnea and ending with Moradabad and Saharanpore; a few places in the Punjab, parts of Orissa, a large portion of the Central Provinces, and others—these still contain shrines sacred to St. Hubert, spots where the axe of the pioneer makes slow progress, where the herdsman still trusts to his tame buffaloes to ward off the common enemy, and where the postman does not very much care to perform his woodland stages alone.

There are three or four ways in which tigers are commonly destroyed by Englishmen. One of the most hazardous is to go after the animal on foot. That men are found to court the obvious risk of coming suddenly on an animal with the eye of a hawk, the agility of a deer, the subtlety of a fox, and the strength of half-a-dozen horses, in the midst of thickets or in ravines or hollows where no room is left for evolutions; that, armed with a rifle of the newest pattern and backed by a single attendant who carries a spare gun, sportsmen have repeatedly been known to send an ounce ball into the skull of the tiger as he crouches for his spring, and even to stop him in mid air; that sad stories of wounds and deaths caused by these unequal encounters will not hinder successive generations of sportsmen from tracking the bison, the rogue elephant, and the man-eater, when they can only see a few yards ahead, in sole reliance on a cool hand, an even pulse, and a correct eyesight—these are facts which merely prove that there is no form of hazard or adventure which comes amiss to Englishmen. And in justification of these attempts it must be admitted that there are, in Madras especially, jungles in which elephants cannot manoeuvre, or provinces where they are not to be had. But the practice is akin to rashness, and almost smacks of folly. A second mode of getting rid of some one well-known animal particularly obnoxious to the villagers is for the Englishman to sit up at night in a tree or elevated stage, close to a slaughtered bullock, and take the chance of hitting the tiger in the moonlight when it returns to finish its meal. We have even known an inverted cask, covering the shooter and fixed in the ground, with a loophole, to be employed for this purpose. A third plan is yearly practised in the Rewa and Mirzapore jungles. The shooters take up their positions on elevated platforms extemporized from bamboos or *sand* trees, at intervals, along the line which the game is made to take. A long array of beaters, disposed by skilful Jemadars and Shikaries, and provided with drums, fireworks, and sounding instruments, sweeps the jungles leisurely, and drives the game of all kinds in the direction of the expectant and sometimes sleepy and recumbent sportsmen. Great patience and perfect knowledge of the country are requisite for success. And, with good management, deer of two or three kinds, bears and leopards, and feathered game of various sorts, reward the plan and the execution. There may be a brisk fusillade as the line of beaters approaches, but there are no very hot corners. This kind of tiger-hunting is called a *hunt*. It is, in its way, exciting, and is rarely attended with any danger. The last and most orthodox way of killing tigers is from the howdah on the back of the elephant. Here you may have the minimum of danger with the maximum of success. But several essentials go to the formation of a good party. You must not be too early or too late in the season. If a good deal of superfluous grass has been burned, so as to leave certain spots where all wild animals can congregate; if the hot winds have not been too powerful, and there are still pools to which deer, buffalo, and tigers can resort; if neither of those well-known crack shots, the Nawab of Barootpore or the Maharaja of Bundooknuggur, have been beforehand, tantalizing you with rumours of innumerable tigers slain, spoiling the best beats, and driving the big game across the border into Nepal; if the expedition is under the command of some

sagacious civilian or experienced planter, whose influence will be sufficient to keep order amongst the mahouts and dispose the trackers to do their very best in the common cause—if all these requisites can be combined, then there is every chance of a good miscellaneous bag, beginning with snipe and black partridge, and culminating in half a score of tigers, with a rhinoceros or two. As a general rule, every kind of game abounds in a tiger jungle; or it might be more correct to say that tigers seek their living in jungles frequented by every sort of game, including numbers of deer and wild boar. But there are certain rigid rules to which every member of the party must submit. When there is reason to suspect the presence of a tiger, not a shot can be fired at any other game. Deer must bound away untouched from under the feet of the elephant; a herd of buffaloes must crash uninjured through the forest; the black partridge, the peacock, the jungle fowl, and even the floridan must rise in succession, presenting an easy mark as they come up to the level of the howdah, and yet the fowling-piece charged with No. 6 or No. 5 shot must not be discharged. When the tiger has been roused, or when the long search has been unrewarded, then, on the homeward beat, perhaps the ban is removed and sportsmen are licensed to pop at anything. Very often a tiger is started close to some elephant; two or three practised shots fire at the waving grass or well ahead of the tail which is seen to curl for a moment; all is silent; or there is a growl and a few struggles; and the shout of a mahout or a beater announces that the animal is no more. The late Mr. Bateman, a planter in the Malda district, many years ago, was actually in conversation with Miss Eden, the sister of Lord Auckland, explaining to her the secrets of woodsman's craft, when he disposed of an animal in this way by one single and well-directed shot.

But tigers are not always to be rolled over like rabbits. Every now and then sensational elements are not wanting. The tiger is only wounded, without detriment to his powers of attack; or he is disturbed at his morning meal, or during the process of digestion, and is naturally indignant; or, if the male has slunk off, the tigress, with three cubs, is left behind and shows fight. Then occurs a scene which has often been described at much greater length than we can afford. With tail erect, open jaws, and a roar that frightens the less practised elephant, down comes the assailant; and in far less time than we can write it, he has made good his position on the head of a splendid female elephant. Two elephants with pads or mattresses, on which a couple of natives are squatting, make clean off. Their flight unsteadies another, hitherto thought to be staunch, and therefore fitted with a howdah, and the three crash through the jungle, trumpeting aloud, while the mahouts vainly dig their iron hooks into the heads of the runaways, and the occupant of the howdah, with both his barrels at full cock, may hear them go off, or runs the chance of being dashed violently against the boughs, which are just high enough to allow the elephant itself to pass beneath. Meanwhile the tiger growls and claws freely, and the elephant endeavours to shake off its adversary or get it for a few seconds beneath its feet. No one dares fire; one sportsman, because he has enough to do in the way of holding on; the others, because they might in all probability hit the mahout, whose legs are within three inches of the tiger's fore paw. At length the incumbrance is shaken off, and a sharp volley settles the affair. There are some maxims which a cautious sportsman will always bear in mind. Never get off your elephant to inspect a tiger until you are quite sure he is dead, and, above all, do not go on foot in search of an animal you have severely wounded. Never allow your elephant to stand still when beating for a tiger at which you have fired. The sportsman who does not "keep moving" is the one almost invariably selected for attack. Remember that a tiger out of his beat, surprised by daylight and compelled to take shelter in any scrap of jungle, may charge at any moment, unprovoked, for the simple reason that no other refuge is left him.

The recent splendid display of the Prime Minister of Nepal recalls visions of grand battues when wild animals were more numerous than they are now, and when two or three tigers might be on foot at one and the same time; but we do not care to provoke incredulity by recounting the number of these animals that are said to have been "padded"—i.e. laid across the mattresses of the elephants—by crack shots in the early years of this century. The following items of sport may, however, be relied on. A general officer, still living, had at one time of his career certificates from the revenue authorities, who are the dispensers of rewards for the destruction of ferocious beasts, to the effect that he had killed more than three hundred tigers—this being about the number of Saracens that Brian de Bois Guilbert had slain with his own hand. Another sportsman, just thirty years ago, on a quiet official tour throughout his own district, came across thirty-one tigers, and accounted for twenty-nine; a proportion which shooters in Norfolk at battues of pheasants would allow to be high. Before the muzzleloaders of another official, who was quite alone and had but three or four elephants, there fell, in one morning's sport, three tigers and two rhinoceroses; and only twenty years back a party, not two hundred miles from Calcutta, had the luck to fall in with five tigers in succession in the course of three hours, and to bag them all. This incident was afterwards made the subject of a lively picture, in which the artist, with very pardonable exaggeration, had portrayed the animals as all falling about the same moment; one was lying dead, another growing out his last breath, and a third was seen with his claws fixed firmly on one of the elephants which filled up the fore and the back ground.

Natives, with ancient weapons which are to Brown Bess what Brown Bess is to a modern rifle with explosive bullets, often make wonderful shots and display a coolness which Englishmen would hardly surmise. They also slay their enemies with poisoned arrows, either set in the runs, or fired from some ambush. Now and then they dig pits, and occasionally have been known to surround with nets a small patch of jungle into which a tiger has been seen to retire at dawn of day. The villagers then turn out armed with long spears, matchlocks, and miscellaneous weapons; the tiger is roused by fireworks out of his lair, and is killed or mobbed as he tries to force his way through the meshes. A capital description of a stirring event of this sort is to be found in the pages of the *Old Forest Ranger*. We recollect an official report of the gallant conduct of a policeman, who, finding a tiger inside a cow-house, had the presence of mind to bolt the door, and before the imprisoned animal could make any attempt at escape, he was quietly disposed of by a couple of shots from a gun manufactured either at Monghyr or Birmingham. The cleverest stalk of a tiger by a native was, however, the following. A Shikari saw one asleep under the shade of a large tree on the side of a tank, and found no prospect of getting a shot from the land side. So he had recourse to the following expedient. He waded from the opposite bank, gun in hand above the water, which was breast high, with a long cord fastened to his waist, the other end of which remained in the hands of a confederate on the bank confronting the tiger. When he got noiselessly within twenty paces of the sleeping savage, he delivered his shot, and was immediately jerked violently back under water by his partner. But there was no need of this excessive caution, for one bullet had done the business. Anecdotes of the pertinacity and cunning of the man-eating species of tiger, the terror of a hundred villages, may be contrasted with equally trustworthy stories of his cowardice or indifference when not pressed by hunger. The shout of a herd-boy, or the barking of a dog, has sometimes scared them away. And under the influence of great atmospheric disturbance, the tiger, like Casca's lion in *Julius Caesar*, has not only been known to "go surly by, without annoying," but has sought refuge in a ryot's hut. In the terrible cyclones of 1864 and 1867, leopards and tigers were seen to crouch during the violence of the wind and water, in close proximity to human beings, like domestic cats.

Not very long since the Indian papers were full of discussions as to the best way of ridding districts of these destructive pests. One writer thought that ten shillings or even one pound for a tiger's head was too little to tempt a native to risk limb and life. Another pointed out that an increase in price only led to deceit and selfishness, and that each individual Shikari, instead of making common cause with others, only studied how to keep the large reward entirely to himself. A third complained that it was perfectly useless to get up a party unless you could include in it some official who would prevail on the villagers to show a tiger's haunts. And a fourth seemed to be of opinion that these fine animals were something like sturgeon or wild cattle at Chillingham, and that they should not be laid low by any less noble hand than one of the ruling race. But the upshot of the controversy has led us to the conclusion that while tigers are, on the whole, a persecuted and a diminishing body, there is no fear that, for some years to come, they may not be found in sufficient numbers to test the skill and reward the perseverance of men who, making light of hot winds and the thermometer in tents at 100°, will rise at 4 A.M. in the month of April, and will not return to camp till 2 P.M., when the sky is like copper, the ground like iron, and the rays of the sun are not felt in their intensity only because the atmosphere is thick and heavy with fine sand and dust.

INACCURACY.

ARE qualities which are the grammatical and logical opposites of one another necessarily inconsistent with one another? In putting our question we have perhaps stumbled on an example which we had not thought of, as the question might well be argued whether a man may not be at once consistent and inconsistent. In the vulgar sense of the words "consistent" and "consistency," there can be little doubt about it. By consistency not a few people mean sticking to the same opinion under all circumstances, the state of mind of the man who, to use Lord Macaulay's alternative, must be either an inspired prophet or an obstinate fool. Such a one, under the cover of consistency, must often be desperately inconsistent. The really consistent man is the man who makes the right inferences from his own principles, who acts according to his own professions. And, to do this, he must very often, with changed circumstances, change both his judgment of things and his own line of conduct. He changes in truth to preserve his consistency; and yet many people will call him inconsistent if he changes. But the paradox here is only verbal; it comes simply of the wrong way in which people use the words "consistent" and "inconsistent." Of course, as usual, the mistake in the use of words implies a mistake as to the nature of things. To call a man inconsistent who changes for good reasons comes of fancying that there is some virtue in mere immobility, in mere keeping to the same ground, whether with reason or without reason. Still the point is only verbal; those who would call a man consistent for so doing would of course not allow that he was inconsistent. But we have turned aside to a mere question of words. It is not about consistency and inconsistency that we wish to speak, but about accuracy and inaccuracy. Some late questions and cases of criticism have

led us to some reflections on this point, and specially to the question whether accuracy and inaccuracy can exist together. In a certain sense it is a truism to say that they can. The common imperfection of human nature hinders the most careful man from being perfectly accurate in all times and places. And it therefore follows that the most accurate man is inaccurate in some times and places; that is, he now and then makes mistakes, or, according to the familiar quotation, Homer sometimes nods. But this again is not exactly what we mean. What we mean is whether the habit of accuracy and the habit of inaccuracy may not, in a certain sense, co-exist in the same person. There is one general idea of accuracy, and therefore one general idea of its opposite inaccuracy. But accuracy, and therefore inaccuracy, takes several forms, and the question is whether some forms of accuracy may not be capable of existing alongside of some forms of inaccuracy. We might even go on to ask whether some forms of accuracy may not even tend to promote some forms of inaccuracy.

Of the nature of accuracy we have spoken before now. We need now only repeat a warning against the mistake which confounds accuracy with mere minuteness. Accuracy implies minuteness whenever minuteness is needed; but it is perfectly possible to be accurate without being minute. Accuracy implies that every statement shall be true, clear, and definite, as far as it goes; it is therefore opposed to vagueness as well as to positive untruth. But an accurate statement may be perfectly general, and may go into no detail whatever. Indeed, where detail is not needed, a statement may be said to be all the more accurate for not going into detail. It is a higher feat of accuracy to put a perfectly general idea into words which express all that is wanted, and not more than is wanted, than it is to put together a great number of facts without a mistake. But, where the minute facts are really wanted, then accuracy demands that every one of them shall be correct to the letter. The truly accurate man neither despises minuteness nor makes an idol of it. He is broadly general where a general statement is what is wanted. He is minutely detailed where minute detail is what is needed. But, whether general or detailed, he is always careful that what he says conveys at once a clear idea and a true idea. Details will sometimes make a statement more clear, sometimes less. He acts accordingly. It might perhaps not be too much to say that details sometimes make a statement truer, sometimes less true. In this case he acts accordingly also.

The aim and object of accuracy, therefore, is to give a true and clear statement of the matter in hand, whether the proposition is perfectly general or minutely detailed. We say true and clear, though in a certain sense truth implies clearness; that is to say, clearness is the means by which truth is made to the minds of others to appear truth. A man may be truthful without being clear; but, unless he is clear, others cannot tell that he is truthful. We should not call a man inaccurate simply because he is obscure; but, as long as he is obscure, we cannot say that he is accurate. Clearness then is, as it were, the form, while truth is the substance of accuracy. Inaccuracy therefore involves some kind or some degree of carelessness about truth. It excludes wilful falsehood; for that we have stronger names than inaccuracy; but it includes everything short of wilful falsehood. It stands, in short, in the same relation to wilful falsehood in which manslaughter stands to wilful murder. Manslaughter may be only just not wilful murder, and it may be only just not accident or justifiable homicide. So inaccuracy ranges from those pardonable slips which no man can wholly avoid to misstatements implying an indifference to truth which is highly blameworthy. Inaccuracy is thus carelessness of statement; but it may be carelessness in a very high or a very low degree. It implies that the utterer of the inaccurate statement has not taken so much pains to find out and to set forth the truth as he ought to have done. Theoretically, then, every case of inaccuracy implies some degree of moral blame. But the blame may be so slight that it may be merely theoretical, while it may rise to a degree only just short of the blame due to wilful falsehood. In some cases it may be the result of a constitutional habit of mind, almost a habit of body; in other cases, though there is no conscious falsehood, yet the inaccuracy arises from a practice of trifling with truth. A man may, almost from sheer accident, put a wrong name or date, though he is neither ignorant nor confused. Or he may make the same kind of mistake, not through momentary heedlessness, but through real ignorance. Or he may, whether through heedlessness or through half-knowledge, roll two or three misconceptions together, in which case he rises to the dignity of a blunder. Or he may, whether through mere love of effect or through the partisanship of any theory, have got into a habit of colouring and exaggerating, of turning a thing in such a way that it will look pretty, which implies, which none of the other forms imply, a greater or less degree of conscious carelessness as to the truth.

But the real test of accuracy and inaccuracy is not so much to be found by reckoning the number of mistakes which a man may make as by seeing what he does with his mistakes when he has made them. Theoretically indeed the perfectly accurate man would make no mistakes; but such a perfectly accurate man exists only in theory. Practically it is truer to say that everybody makes mistakes, but that the accurate man finds out and corrects his own mistakes, while the inaccurate man leaves them for other people to find out. In most cases the degree of accuracy, at all events in a book or other writing, depends on the amount—and not merely on the amount but on the nature—of the revision given after the first writing. No scholar would wish to be judged by his first rough draught. It is sure to contain a

good many mere slips; it will most likely contain a good many cases of that not uncommon process when it is good to write down something at once, to make some statement, to form some theory, which it is intended to test afterwards to see whether it will hold water. But, in the case of a really accurate writer, the errors which, through these causes, his first sketch is sure to contain will be got rid of at some stage or other of his revision of his work. Some will vanish when he reads over his manuscript, others will vanish as he corrects his proof. No doubt, even in the case of the most accurate man, a few slips will still escape here and there; but this is no more than the weakness of human nature.

In fact, a really accurate man is best tested by seeing whether he is at once struck by an inaccuracy, whether on his own part or on the part of any one else, when it is set before him. The accurate man is quick in seeing his own mistakes and ready in correcting them; he is equally quick in seeing the mistakes of others and in applying to them that remedy which may be fitting in each particular case. The inaccurate man, whether he be inaccurate through heedlessness or ignorance or any other cause, will pass by the mistakes both of himself and of other people. But here again come degrees and subdivisions. In this matter, as in most others, we find the three classes described in the famous verses quoted by Aristotle. There is the best man of all who sees everything for himself; there is the good man who sees what others point out to him; and there is the worthless man who cannot find out for himself, and who cannot or will not be taught by others. Thus, in our present matter, there is the really accurate man, who sees his own mistakes and corrects them; there is the man who is inaccurate in the second degree, who does not himself find out his own mistakes, but who sees and corrects them when they are pointed out; and there is the higher stage of inaccuracy of the man who cannot see his mistakes when they are pointed out. But this last class again admits of a division, as it takes in two kinds of people between whom there is a great moral difference. There are men who, when a mistake is pointed out to them, thankfully accept the correction, who believe that they understand it, who presently go about to correct the mistake, but whose inherent inaccuracy is such that their well-meant attempts at correction commonly lead to a fresh mistake, often greater than that with which they set out. There are others who, when a mistake is pointed out, stoutly maintain that there is no mistake at all, and who go on to pile up fresh blunders in defence of the original blunder. Both these two classes are intellectually hopeless, but it is only the second who are morally blameworthy. Yet it is of great importance to distinguish between this hopeless class, who can never correct their mistakes, and those who are in that second degree of inaccuracy where correction is quite possible. The position of the two is in every way different, and both great injustice may be done to the men themselves, and real mischief done to others, by confounding the two classes.

It would be easy to name books which abound in inaccuracies of detail, which yet are essentially good books, and which might be made thoroughly good by going through them and correcting each mistake for itself. There are also books which equally abound in inaccuracies of detail, but which the most thorough correction of every particular mistake could not turn into good books. The difference lies in the cause of the inaccuracy in the two cases. In the first it is the mere inaccuracy of heedlessness, which may be set right by revision. In the second case it is the inaccuracy of invincible ignorance or of obstinate perversity, which no revision can set right. Under both classes may be found works of pretension, of reputation, and even of real merit. For it is plain that purely literary merit is quite consistent even with inaccuracy of the second and worst class. In the first class we might name more than one book of high reputation, and which, in the teeth of its inaccuracies, deserves that reputation. The books which we mean read as if their authors had sent them into the world without ever revising their manuscripts or their proofs. If they did so, they were undoubtedly blameworthy. The result is a large amount of positive mistakes, but still mistakes which may be corrected. There are writers who give a narrative, a picture, a comment, the force and truth, and even accuracy of which, as far as the general conception goes, fill us with admiration; yet, when we come to examine it in detail, it is full of inaccuracies in detail. Here is a wrong name, there a wrong title, there a wrong date. As with matter, so with style. There are writers whose style, in its general effect, is clear, vigorous, and noble. Yet, if we pull their particular sentences to pieces, half of them sin against some nicety of grammar. The book reads as if it were the author's first draught, with all the truth and vigour of his first conceptions, but which has not gone through the revision which was needed to make them accurate in detail. Whether lack of revision is really the cause of the fault of course we cannot tell. The mistakes may come from an inaccurate habit of some other kind. Books like these sometimes suggest the idea with which we started, that minute attention to detail at the first moment of composition would have marred the general conception, so that the inaccuracy is in some sort part of the accuracy. Anyhow, the inaccuracies in detail are there, and yet they do not interfere with the general merit, and even with the general accuracy, of the thing as a whole. Whether the fault really is due to lack of revision or to any other cause, it is certain that revision could cure the fault. All that is needed in the case of such books is for the author or somebody else to go through them again and correct every slip of detail. Now we do not defend inaccuracy in this or in any other case. But we do say that inaccuracy of this kind, inaccuracy on the surface, inaccuracy which can be corrected, is a different

thing from the inherent inaccuracy which nothing can correct. Books which are inaccurate in this way may be criticized, if any one chooses, elaborately and severely; but it is unfair to criticize them as if the inaccuracy were inherent, as if the inaccuracy were the main characteristic and substance of the work. The brick which is shown is a part of the house, but it is an accidental part, and not a fair sample of the whole building.

In the other cases the brick is a fair sample; the inaccuracy pervades the whole work, and no amount of revision could get rid of it. It is not merely that names and dates and titles are wrongly given; the thing itself is wrong. There are books of repute, books of a taking style, which no amount of correction in detail could make of any real value. Let some reviser go through such a book and alter every particular inaccurate statement. Nothing is gained by his labour; the book itself remains as inaccurate as it was before. It may be merely that the point of everything is missed, that the writer has no accurate conception of his general subject, that he puts this in which is not wanted and leaves out that which is wanted, that he lacks the general knowledge without which accuracy of detail is useless, or rather impossible. In such a case as this, the inaccuracy is inherent; the inaccuracy of detail is only the expression of the deeper general inaccuracy, and this or that particular mistake is a fair sample of the whole book. These are the cases of invincible ignorance, of a misconception as to the main object, in which no improvement in detail can do any good. Yet a writer of this class may often write in a pleasing and attractive way, in a way which makes the "general reader" admire him, and makes him wonder at the contempt with which the scholar looks on his idol. Beyond these again lie the worst cases, where the perversity is moral, where the distinct object of the book is to call evil good and good evil. By a happy dispensation, books of this class are commonly as inaccurate in detail as they are wicked in their purpose; but in such cases mere inaccuracy is a slight matter. There is a certain satisfaction in finding the apologist of evil as full of exhibitions of carelessness and ignorance as of moral perversity; but, in the face of moral perversity, mere carelessness and ignorance might be allowed to go scot free, were it not that both intellectual and moral instruction may be gained by narrowly watching how the greater evil is almost sure to be accompanied by the smaller.

DEATH IN THE PHIAL.

IT has been asserted in various terms by Mathurin Regnier, Lord Shelburne, Mr. Carlyle, and probably by many less famous people also, that the human race consists principally of fools. This is a belief which is the more likely to be generally accepted because each person holding it will be careful to regard himself as one of the minority. In this way one might perhaps arrive at a paradoxical conclusion, that the greater part of mankind was wise because each individual perceived the folly of his neighbours. But the original statement, which by its sweeping nature defies all judicial inquiry into its truth, may easily enough be supported by a large array of facts. If, for instance, credulity were to be accepted as a measure of folly, one could find instances of it springing up on every side as thick as the produce of the dragon's teeth. The imaginative faculty, which in its highest development makes poets, painters, and musicians, men who are constantly striving after something fairer than can be given them by the narrowed capabilities of earthly life, is found in its crudest form among the mass as the love of the merely marvellous. And, when once this is indulged in, it ends by asserting an irresistible sway over those who give themselves up to it. It seems to have an intoxicating effect which destroys all chance of sober judgment. We remember a striking illustration of this at a mock Spiritualistic séance, where a feat of clairvoyance was exhibited. This was to be accomplished by a code of signals between the "medium" and the "subject"; but the use of the code became unnecessary, as the bystanders who had come with the express intention of making a cool and critical inquiry discussed every object which was to be seen by the clairvoyant loudly and openly among themselves, and thus saved him all the trouble of attending to the signals. It is the same readiness and even desire to be on familiar terms with the unexpected that keeps alive many swindling tricks which one might hope to have seen worn out by this time. It is the strange coincidence, as he thinks it, of meeting a genial fellow-countryman in the wilds of London which takes possession of the victim's mind in what is known as the confidence trick, and renders him an easy prey.

One of the best examples of the widespread credulity which craves for some kind of mystic interference with the ordinary course of nature is discovered in the popularity of quack medicines, the proprietors of which make fortunes by trading on the superstition of mankind. For the feeling of awe with which the inhabitants of a small village regard the doctor's surgery is just as superstitious as that with which they pass in fear and trembling the dark archway where from time immemorial a spectral form has been wont to appear. And the same feeling leads them, in the absence of a doctor, to exhaust their boundless capacity of belief on the virtues of some nostrum which professes to cure with a few applications every variety of disorder to which the human race is subject. It is a common notion among the uneducated classes that no remedy against disease has any merit unless its effect is strongly marked; and doctors in such small villages as we have spoken of

frequently find it advisable to employ some unnecessary but harmless drug of which the patient shall perceive the effect in order to make him believe in the cure which had taken place already. It is easy to guess what influence the knowledge of this fact has upon the makers of quack medicines, who are less scrupulous as to the nature of the ingredients with which they attain their object than the village doctor. But it is not only among the poor that patent medicines find a large acceptance. There are thousands of educated people to whom the state of their own health is a source of never-failing interest and excitement; to whom the overthrow of empires is as nothing compared with the fancied derangement of their livers, and to such people the existence of patent medicines affords a constant means for fanning the fire of self-torment. They have long since lost all belief in doctors; but they are continually acquiring and losing belief in all kinds of quackeries. One day they are raised to the height of bliss by the discovery of some concoction which will ensure them happiness for the rest of their lives; the next they are in despair at their folly for having employed a remedy so evidently ludicrous, and are on the look-out for one yet more ridiculous, which they will in the same manner take up and reject. These persons are a nuisance not only to themselves, but to all their acquaintance, whom they pester with detailed accounts of their symptoms, and recommendations of their favourite specific for the time being. It is not to these people, however, that the existence of patent medicines under their present conditions is likely to do great harm. If there were no such things they would make themselves happy, after their miserable fashion, by over-doses of ordinary drugs. But on a large class of the community there can be no doubt that the sale as now conducted of patent medicines has a most pernicious effect.

It may be well here to recognize the fact that there are certain medicines of this kind, such as James's Powder and others, which have long been accepted as valuable by physicians. It is not of these, but of the vast number of quack nostrums which are advertised, and, incredible though it may seem, believed in, as panaceas, that we wish to speak. There are pills and ointments without number, "life" or "health" mixtures, self-styled specifics against feverish attacks, and, above all, opiate draughts, of which the ingredients are far from being so harmless as they profess. There is one popular effervescent mixture which is, it must be said, of a tolerably harmless nature, of which the label sets forth that it is invaluable in all cases of slight derangement, and (there is an audacity about this which is appalling) recommends that in cases of yellow fever the dose should be slightly varied. There are quantities of cough lozenges which are in especial request at this time of year into the composition of which morphia enters largely. There are soothing syrups and powders with which infants are quieted, occasionally for ever, and there are various draughts of the same nature with which grown-up people procure an imitation of the natural rest which they have bartered away for life at high pressure. These too have been known not unfrequently to act with only too much effect. Several of these preparations are made up with active poisons, and almost all are composed of materials which, if not actually poisonous in themselves, become little short of poisonous when taken recklessly, as they are. And for the sale of these things there is an absolutely open market. You may see them in the windows of half the odds-and-ends shops in town and country. It is a curious fact, which may be noted by the way, that a considerable trade in laudanum is driven by small country shoemakers, between whose normal and irregular occupation it is difficult to see any connecting link. There are two medicines, Chloral and Chlorodyne—of which the latter is a patent medicine—that have come into nearly universal use. Both these medicines, no doubt, may be beneficial when applied under proper skill and direction. But the case is widely different when they are applied in absolute ignorance. And that they are so applied in hundreds, or even thousands, of cases there can be no doubt. An unwise or exaggerated use of such powerful drugs as these is every bit as poisonous in its effect as a smaller dose of prussic acid would be. Yet over the sale of the one product a tight and discreet hand is kept; while that of the other is as free as air. Even in the smallest doses the unskilled use of such powerful remedies is dangerous; a variety of diseased conditions may render that fatal which to a healthy man would be innocuous; and thus the sufferer from overtaxed nerves or brain, who fondly believes that he is purchasing sleep and rest, may be really buying his death. It is also to be observed that those who are once tempted to the employment of such drugs as these are liable to take to them as others take to tipping. And, unfortunately, the one amusement is as legal as the other.

One cannot help thinking there must be something wrong in the state of things which permits this unrestricted traffic in deleterious drugs, and that the legislation which is supposed to provide for the safety of the people must require amendment. One section of the Pharmacy Act provides that it shall be unlawful for a chemist to sell, except under restrictions and with precautions of entries made in a book kept for the purpose, any of the poisons named in the first part of schedule A attached to the Act. But among the poisons not named in that schedule are oxalic acid, chloroform, opium, and belladonna. This is perhaps less singular than the fact that another section provides that "nothing hereinbefore contained shall extend to or interfere with the making or dealing in Patent Medicines." This surely in great measure nullifies the first provision of the Act, that "it shall be unlawful for any person to sell or keep open shop for retailing, dispensing, or compounding poisons . . . unless such person shall

be a Pharmaceutical Chemist, or a Chemist and Druggist within the meaning of this Act." It amounts, in fact, to giving with one hand a special privilege to recognized chemists for dealing in poisons, and taking it away with the other. Practically any one who pleases can deal in poisons, so long as they are disguised under the name of patent medicines. No doubt there is something to be said in favour of such medicines, some of which, as we have already said, are really valuable. But it ought not to be impossible to ensure their all being, if not positively useful, comparatively harmless. There seems, indeed, no insuperable objection to adopting the French plan of having every such medicine submitted to an accredited body before its sale can be lawfully carried on. At least it might be arranged that directions as to the quantity of such medicines likely to have a harmful effect should be printed on every bottle containing them. If people chose to disregard such directions, they would have only themselves to blame. If the ingredients of a preparation supposed to be universally beneficial were announced publicly, of course the element of mystery which constitutes its great attraction would vanish. It is certain that, as things stand, a trade is largely carried on which, under the colour of increasing health, does very much to generate disorders, and carries with it not a little danger. English people have a mania for dosing themselves. Where a Frenchman would apply some such mild remedy as a "lait de poule," or a glass of harmlessly medicated lemonade, an Englishman will be content with nothing short of a strong pill or draught. But is it too much to expect that a benevolent Legislature should provide for its subjects indulging in such a folly as this with the least possible danger to themselves?

UNDERGRADUATES AND MONEY-LENDERS.

THE life of undergraduates is much the same as it always was, and if the name of "Sunday Tattersall's" did not exist formerly at Cambridge, the substance of the thing was there. It is wonderful that young men who in a few years become capable of dealing with the practical realities of life should show themselves from eighteen to twenty-one, we will not say vicious, but weak, silly, and almost idiotic. They are like our old friend the working-man, who cannot pass a public-house on his way home without taking a glass of beer or gin. The most wild and improbable designs that ever were fabricated in cotton or wool can be passed off by a University tailor on his customers as neat things in waistcoats or trousers. We have heard that the celebrated pattern which took two men to show it was very nearly sold to a quiet reading-man at Trinity; and he would have given the order if he had not happened to look up and see in a glass a reflected smile on the face of a friend who had accompanied him into the shop. It was, we believe, a "Johnian" who called upon his tutor wearing a white shirt adorned with pink figures of a ballet-girl standing on one toe. Undergraduates wear the most hideous pins and studs, drink the vilest wine, and smoke the most execrable cigars, and it is inexpressible what "screws" they ride. We could almost forgive the money spent in riding or smoking, although often it can be ill spared; but the taste for smoking, drinking, and wearing loud dress and trinkets is despicable. Sometimes they hang about their own necks a weight which they must wear for years. Sometimes parents, sisters, and younger brothers suffer for young hopeful, who was to have taken a good degree, and goes a more particular "mucker" than his associates. The story of Mr. Linklater and his son has been told many times before. The son borrows money which the father pays, warning the lender that he will not pay again, and the borrower that parental displeasure will follow a return to the evil way. But, whatever sons may promise or fathers threaten, the money is usually lent, and in the long run paid, and thus the picture may still be painted in the old familiar colours. There is idling, gambling, dress, drink, and dissipation.

Impositique rogis juvenes ante ora parentum.

The plaintiff in the case which has excited so much attention stated that he first became acquainted with the defendant by seeing him at sports and races. When he first borrowed money of him, in December 1868, the defendant asked him whether he was of age, and he told him. He also told him what his income was. It appears that he had an allowance from his father of 300*l.* a year. His father came to Cambridge in April 1869, and saw the sister of the defendant, who was absent from home. His father "was very angry," and showed the certificate of his age, saying that he would pay the money then claimed sooner than it should come to the knowledge of the authorities, but he prohibited further advances. This account can hardly be otherwise than substantially correct, because Mr. Linklater senior must have had some object in speaking to the defendant's sister, and, in connexion with the subject of advances to his son, he would naturally refer to his son's age; and, whether he produced a certificate or not, the defendant, as a man of business, would know that Mr. Linklater was not likely to be mistaken on this point. The plaintiff proceeded to state that after this "he was hard up again, and applied to the defendant to make him another advance; and the defendant said he did not care to do so after what the father had said." The plaintiff said "he was sorry for his father's roughness," and in the result the defendant made him an advance of 37*l.* 10*s.*, on a note for 50*l.* payable in six months. In May he was removed from the Uni-

versity, and his father's notion that "he was doing no good there" was undoubtedly correct. In 1874 the defendant brought an action against him, which was stopped by the plea of infancy, and in November last he was charged before magistrates at Cambridge with obtaining money from the defendant by the false pretence that he was of age. The charge was dismissed, and he now brought this action against the defendant for malicious prosecution. Without entering into the conflict of evidence between the two Linklaters on the one hand and the defendant and his sister on the other, we may remark that it is highly probable that Mr. Linklater senior did say something to the sister as to his son's age; and, whatever may have passed afterwards, the defendant ought to have believed the father on this point. The lapse of time before the defendant brought his action to recover the money was of course used as an argument against him; but we do not think much of that, as these actions are not usually brought until there appears to be some chance of obtaining payment. After the criminal charge had been dismissed by the magistrates, Mr. Linklater's counsel undertook that the amount of the loan should be repaid, with interest at five per cent., and it was paid accordingly. The defendant's counsel insisted at the trial that this was a compromise of the whole matter, and that the bringing of the action was a breach of an honourable understanding; and this view is, to say the least, plausible. It may be answered, however, that as the plaintiff had undoubtedly received and spent the defendant's money, he or his friends may have felt bound to refund it, and may have done so without intending anything like a compromise. Nevertheless, the course of proceeding at Cambridge, as reported by a local newspaper, was remarkable. The magistrates consulted, and the Mayor said the case must be dismissed. Then the prosecutor by his counsel applied to be bound over to prosecute, and the Mayor, admitting that this application was legal, asked whether it was advisable. Then the counsel consulted with his client, and said that he would not press the application, which, we may remark, was certainly useless, as no grand jury would have found a bill upon such evidence. Then Mr. Linklater's counsel said "he thought the best plan would be that an end to the matter be arrived at now" by his client repaying the money lent, and he would take care that was done. The money was accordingly paid, and a few days afterwards an action was brought for maliciously and without reasonable cause putting the criminal law in motion.

Subject to this question of the alleged compromise, the case was tolerably clear. If the plaintiff made a false representation as to his age, and if the defendant believed it, and was thereby induced to advance money to the plaintiff, then there was reasonable ground for instituting a prosecution; but otherwise not. If there were reasonable ground for the prosecution, then, although the defendant may have instituted it maliciously, that is, with the object, not of vindicating public justice, but of injuring the plaintiff or extorting money from him, still the defendant would not be liable in this action. In many cases prosecutions supported by good evidence have been instituted out of spite; and the law requires both malice and the want of probable cause to support an action. But if a prosecution is shown to be groundless, a jury will be apt to infer that it is malicious, and, in this case, assuming the general truth of the plaintiff's story, there could be no doubt that he was entitled to a verdict. But upon the question of damages the view taken by the jury of the alleged compromise might be important. After nearly an hour's deliberation they gave a verdict for 100l.

The tradesman has a better chance of getting payment than the money-lender, because he may allege that the goods he supplied were "necessaries," and if a jury of tradesmen were allowed to decide the question, they would very likely find in his favour. The Courts, however, have recently inclined to limit the jury's power in this matter, and the modern doctrine is that, unless there is evidence on which the jury might reasonably find that the articles were necessities, the question whether they were necessities ought not to be submitted to them at all. The two Universities have contributed about equally to the elucidation of this head of law; but in the most recent case the defendant was merely an idle young man, younger brother of a baronet, and moving "in the highest society." The articles supplied were a pair of wrist studs, called, we believe, *solitaires*, in which diamonds and rubies were combined in the elegant form of a horse-shoe, at the price of 25l., and a silver-gilt goblet intended for a present to a friend. The question, said a learned Judge, was not whether it was necessary that the defendant should give a silver-gilt goblet to a friend, but whether it was so necessary that he ought to buy it on credit sooner than not have it at all. After much debate it was decided that, as regards these articles, the Judge ought to have decided against the claim without allowing the jury to pronounce upon it; and this decision is likely to be useful in checking the disposition of tradesmen to give credit. In another recent case, the Court held that tobacco and cigars could not under any circumstances be necessities, and therefore there could be no question for the jury. The same decision was arrived at on a claim for dinners supplied to an undergraduate of Cambridge in his rooms, and the reason was that, as a dinner was provided for him daily in the Hall of his College, he could not want another. Formerly the practice was to get from the young man on his coming of age a written acknowledgment of the debt incurred by him during minority, and thus to get rid of the question whether the articles supplied were necessities. But a few years ago an Act of Parliament was passed invalidating these acknowledgments; and this, as far as it went, was a useful measure. The tutor of a College has some con-

trol over his pupils, and some over the tradesmen of the town, or at least so many of them as think they can get more out of the favour of tutors than by defying them. Bills are sometimes paid by parents to shelter their sons from rustication or other penalty of extravagance, just as Mr. Linklater paid the amount of the first advance to his son; and many bills are paid by the young men themselves when they come of age. It used to be said that the tradesmen of Cambridge were pretty good judges of what place a customer would take in the tripos, and regulated the amount of credit given to him accordingly. On the whole, it may be thought that these tradesmen do tolerably well. The majority of their customers pay them, and the prices charged are high enough to cover occasional losses. Even in the recent case it appears that the lender would have got his money back with five per cent. interest if he had not been so foolish as to take criminal proceedings. Mr. Linklater did, in fact, pay this money, and, as he repudiated the idea of a compromise of the prosecution, he must have paid it because his son, or his son's friends, or society, thought, or were supposed to think, that it ought to be paid. It is easy to call these money-lenders "pests and nuisances," but if they get their profit they won't mind a few hard names.

THE FALL IN SILVER.

THE fall in the value of silver has at length gone so far as to compel the Government of India to take steps in the matter. With our usual indifference to purely Indian questions, the depreciation of silver has hitherto excited singularly little attention amongst us. It is not so with our neighbours. In France, Germany, the United States, Italy, Belgium, and Holland, and even in Switzerland and Greece, the fact has for some years back been the subject of much anxious discussion, while it is impossible to turn over a file of Indian newspapers without coming upon so many references to the question as leave no room for doubt concerning the wide general interest it arouses; but in this country the matter is hardly ever treated outside the journals specially devoted to politico-economical speculation, and the money articles of the daily press. Yet the question is one of the most real practical importance to our Indian Empire, and, accordingly, a Committee of the House of Commons has been appointed, on the motion of Lord G. Hamilton, to inquire into the causes of the depreciation, and to consider the remedies to be adopted. The currency of India, as every reader is aware, is a silver currency; consequently, all taxes are received in silver, and all salaries are paid in the same metal, as are, of course, likewise all purchase-moneys and debts of every kind. But our own currency is gold, silver being with us merely token money. When, therefore, a payment has to be made in this country by any one in India, it has to be made in gold. But silver has fallen so much as compared with gold that the Indian resident incurs a very serious loss on changing his rupees for sovereigns. The Government of India has to transmit to this country annually, to pay interest on debt, salaries, and pensions, to purchase stores and materials, and for various other purposes, about 15,000,000l. Now the new Viceroy told a deputation from Manchester a fortnight ago, that on every rupee thus transmitted the Indian Government loses threepence, or one-eighth; so that its loss on the 15,000,000l. amounts to 1,875,000l. This sum is more than twice the amount of the import duties on cotton; consequently, if it could be saved, not only might those duties be taken off, but there would remain a substantial balance to aid in the adjustment and reduction of other duties. Or, if a more cautious course were adopted, the Indian Government would be in possession of a real surplus, to serve as an insurance against periodical famine and against any diminution of the opium revenue, as well as to furnish a reserve fund in case of war. This is the way in which the question affects the Government. It preses even more hardly upon the civil and military services, and upon the servants of the Indian Railway Companies. Let us suppose that a member of the Civil Service, after spending the best years of his life in the performance of trying and arduous duties, has saved 24,000l., and that, when about to come home, he transmits his savings for investment. According to Lord Lytton he would lose one-eighth of the amount, or 3,000l., which at no more than four per cent. would be a loss of 120l. a year. The depreciation of silver, therefore, is tantamount to a reduction of salary, so far at least as savings are concerned, and remittances home, whether to children at school or for any other purpose. Lastly, Englishmen trading with India suffer in the same way. It is universally found that, when a currency is undergoing depreciation, the fall of value is more rapid than the rise of prices. It was so in the United States during the civil war, and it is so in India now. Consequently, when the English merchant sells his goods in India, he gets a nominal price but little in advance of that which he would have got some years ago. But the rupees in which that price is paid are no longer worth as much gold as they were formerly. This is one of the reasons of the unprofitableness of the export trade to India of which we hear so much.

The causes of the depreciation are not far to seek. Silver, like all other commodities, obeys the law of demand and supply. When the demand falls off and the supply increases, the value of the metal sinks. This is what is occurring at the present moment. In California and the territories beyond the Rocky Mountains extremely rich silver mines have of late been discovered. Those mines have already yielded large quantities of the metal, and in

the near future they are expected to prove still more productive. From the reports of the Commissioner of Mining it appears that between the years 1848 and 1860 (both inclusive) the greatest production of the silver mines of the United States in any one year was 30,000*l.*, and in eleven out of the thirteen years it did not exceed 10,000*l.* In 1864, for the first time, the yield exceeded a million sterling; in 1870 it exceeded three millions; in 1873 it reached seven millions; and last year, though the figures are not accurately known, the yield is believed to have been as great. Last summer additional mines were discovered, and the prediction is hazarded that, should the demand hold good, there will be produced within the next five years more silver than has been turned out between 1848 and the present time. In the meanwhile Germany has adopted an exclusive gold standard, and is rapidly demonetizing her old silver coins. From statistics published by the Berlin Government we learn that previous to 1871 the silver coined by the various German mints amounted to, in round numbers, 68,000,000*l.* sterling; the new silver coinage is to amount to 21,000,000*l.* sterling. There will remain, therefore, a balance of 47,000,000*l.* to be called in and sold by the German Government. Some of this has of course been exported, melted down, and lost; but at any rate the sum to be disposed of by the German Government must reach to between thirty and forty millions sterling. Add this amount to the production of the American mines, and we see how enormous has been the increased supply of silver which since 1871 has been thrown upon the markets of the world. It has caused a glut; and, as a natural consequence, has run down the value of the commodity. At the same time Holland also has adopted a gold standard, and so has Japan. The monetary policy pursued by Germany, Holland, and Japan has had another effect; it has restricted as well as glutted the silver markets. Formerly those countries required silver to keep up their currency; now they not alone have no demand for the metal, but are selling it. And, at the same time, most of the great countries of the world—France, Austria, Russia, Italy, the United States—have a forced paper circulation, and therefore have but a slight demand for metal. By the Resumption Act of last year the United States adopted the gold standard; there, accordingly, the demand for silver must continue small. And the countries of the Latin Union—France, Italy, Switzerland, and Belgium, with Greece—have by their monetary convention, which has been annually renewed for three years in succession, restricted within very narrow limits the quantity of silver which it is lawful to coin. Thus the demand for silver upon every hand has diminished simultaneously with the increase of supply.

The remedy usually recommended in our own case for the evils we have pointed out is the adoption in India of a gold currency. It is estimated that about 100,000,000*l.* would suffice for that purpose; and even if the whole amount had to be obtained by means of a loan, it is urged that that would entail a charge of not more than 4,000,000*l.* or 5,000,000*l.* a year. But we have seen that already India is losing nearly 2,000,000*l.* a year, and the depreciation has certainly not yet reached its limits. Besides, the country is losing in other ways. Every Railway Company in the Empire, for example, loses equally on the dividends it pays at home and the purchases it makes. Therefore, it is argued, even if India had to borrow the whole amount, it would not lose by the transaction. But it would not have to borrow the whole amount. For at least half the existing silver currency could be called in and sold. Still that would, no doubt, involve a great loss. Already the depreciation of silver is twelve and a half per cent., but if the Indian as well as the German market were closed, there is no saying where it would end. This is the first objection to an Indian gold coinage. India and China are now the only countries where there is an effective demand for silver. If India becomes a seller instead of a buyer, it is clear that she could dispose of her silver only at an enormous loss. To this, however, it is replied by the advocates of the measure, that if France follows the example of England, Germany, and the United States, and adopts a gold standard, the depreciation of silver will become so extreme as to compel India to do so likewise, and that then her loss will be much greater than it would be now. There is indisputable force in the argument. But it is objected on the other side, that if India adopts a gold standard, the demand for gold will become excessive. Since 1871 the German demand alone has kept the money markets of the world in perturbation. According to the existing law, the United States will resume a gold currency in 1879. If France and India do the same, gold will, it is argued, become as scarce as silver is over-abundant; trade will degenerate into a game of speculation; for no man can tell what the value of money will be two months forward, and we shall have panics with the bank-rate at ten per cent. It may be replied that the policy of India ought to be determined by the interests of India, not by the convenience of other countries. And this is true; but it must not be left out of sight that India would suffer quite as much as other countries by such a disturbance of international monetary relations as is here pointed at. We have but to look at Germany to see how difficult is the task of changing the money of a great country. At the end of five years the operation is not completed, while the trade and industry of the Empire are seriously suffering. Lastly, it is argued that the evils under which India is now suffering will gradually right themselves. The fall of value will check the production of the American mines, while the sales by Germany must, as a matter of course, soon come to an end. The supply will then cease to be greater than the world can absorb.

In the meantime prices in India will gradually rise so as to adapt themselves to the altered value of the rupee, and when this adaptation is effected the import trade will be as profitable as ever. Lastly, if France resumes specie payments and retains the double standard, the field of employment for silver in Europe will be restored to nearly its normal extent. These are the leading arguments for and against the adoption of a gold currency in India. It will be for the Committee obtained by Lord G. Hamilton to examine their relative weight.

A NICE IRISH SESSION.

A CERTAIN number of Irish members in the House of Commons have just hit upon an ingenious argument in favour of relegating them to a House of their own on the other side of St. George's Channel. They seem to have resolved to play the part of the hedgehog at Westminster, and to be bent upon making that body as uncomfortable as possible until they get what they want. The plot seems to have been hatched before the opening of Parliament, and on the very first day it began to be put into execution. The Home Rule members, every man of them, have put down Bills in the list, and the greater part of the Session has already been booked for Irish business. There is hardly a Wednesday or other open day to be had for anything else. One of the tricks by which they have accomplished this triumph was brought before the House on Thursday in a question to the Speaker, who was asked by Mr. Ritchie whether it was in accordance with the practice of the House that several members should, by agreement among themselves, enter their names on the Notice Paper with the view of giving notice of one and the same motion, in order that such motion might be proposed by any of the members whose name was first called, and thereby obtain undue priority. The Speaker replied that the practice described was practically an evasion of the rule of the House, and if persisted in, might have to be checked by requiring each member on entering his name on the Notice List to state the subject-matter of his motion. He added that, if any irregularity had occurred, it was only through inadvertence, and that the House might rely on the good sense and right feeling of members for the faithful observance of its rule. Nor is this all. In the small hours of Tuesday morning the House of Commons was treated to an impressive lesson of its helpless dependence on the good will and civility of Irish members. It was kept out of bed till nearly five o'clock in the morning in order that Major O'Gorman and his colleagues might show their contempt for the amenities of Parliamentary life, and their determination to make their presence felt in a particularly offensive manner. In this project these gentlemen are no doubt in many respects eminently qualified to succeed, for they unfortunately have it in their power to cause a grievous delay of public business. Whether they will persevere in this course remains to be seen; but there can at least be no mistake as to the amiable intentions with which they have begun the Session, and, judging from Major O'Gorman's behaviour, they are quite capable of going on to the end. On the morning in question no fewer than seventeen successive divisions took place in the House of Commons between a quarter past one and a quarter past four. The occasion was a motion for the appointment of twenty-one members as referees on private Bills. Mr. Sullivan, Captain Nolan, Dr. Ward, Major O'Gorman, and other Irish members complained that the representatives of their country were overlooked in making these appointments, and a threat was made of dividing the House on every name on the list. The first division was taken on an amendment by Mr. Sullivan that the Committee should consist of twenty-three members—the number proposed being twenty-one, of which two were Scotch and two Irish members—which was defeated by 73 to 21. The names were then taken in order, and the first name was Mr. Walpole's, for which there were 79 ayes against 11 noes. In the next case there were 77 ayes against 11 noes, and in the next the minority was reduced to 10. Major O'Gorman rose to express in his usual lucid manner his sense of the "scandalous" conduct of the Government in not giving way to the Irish members, for which he was called to account and ordered to withdraw the expression. The Chancellor of the Exchequer explained that there was no desire to exclude Irish members as such from holding the appointments in question; the only object was to get the members who were most competent to discharge the important and responsible duties of referees, and naturally men with special experience on such matters were preferred. Other members pleaded for at least an adjournment of the debate. Major O'Gorman, however, was obdurate, and the divisions went on, the minority gradually declining as one by one those who belonged to it became ashamed of their conduct, and fell out or went over to the other side. When the minority fell to eight, even Mr. Sullivan became susceptible of this feeling, and protested that the divisions had been carried far enough. In the last series of divisions the ayes were 75, while the noes had dwindled to 3; the noble trio who thus distinguished themselves being Mr. Dunbar, Captain Nolan, and Dr. Ward, with Major O'Gorman and Mr. Parnell as tellers. At last the list of names was exhausted, those of the two Scotch and two Irish members being allowed to pass without question; and it was about a quarter past four in the morning when the House adjourned. It is easy to conceive that, if this method of political contest is

systematically carried out by the Irish Home Rulers, a fervent desire might be created among the rest of the legislative body that Irish members should stay at home.

It is well known that the comprehensive and urgent duties of the Government require that it should have a large share of the time of the House of Commons, and that what are called private members are consequently sadly hampered in finding opportunities for bringing forward Bills, or calling attention to subjects in which they take an interest. It would appear, however, that during the present Session, any time which is not occupied by the Government is to be monopolized by the Irish members, who are prepared to propose a general reconstruction of everything in Ireland down to the most microscopic of its institutions. We find, for instance, on the Orders of the House the following list of Bills relating to Ireland. Mr. Henry wishes to amend the law with reference to the registration of Parliamentary voters in Ireland. Mr. Dunbar thinks he could improve the law relating to Union rating. Major O'Gorman has a plan for improving the Irish municipal franchise. Captain Nolan has a Bill for the establishment of County Boards in Ireland. Dr. Ward has taken up the question of the regulation and management of the coast and deep-sea fisheries of Ireland. Mr. Butt offers a Bill for the amendment of the law with reference to tenure of land, and another Bill with regard to University education. Mr. Parnell would like to see some changes in the law as to the reclamation of waste lands in Ireland. Mr. Biggar is desirous to assimilate the borough franchise in Ireland to that of England. Mr. Ronayne proposes legislation with regard to grand jury levies, and the establishment of Representative Councils in Irish counties for the management of local affairs. Mr. Downing has ideas about the removal of Irish paupers from England and Scotland to their own country which he is anxious to get embodied in an Act. Mr. R. Smythe has a Bill to prohibit the sale of intoxicating liquors on Sunday in Ireland; Mr. M. Brooks, one with reference to Irish municipal corporations; Mr. Crauford, one to amend the Landlord and Tenant (Ireland) Act of 1870; Sir J. McKenna, one to deal with the rating of towns; Mr. Downing, one about grand juries; Mr. Sullivan, one with regard to coroners in Dublin; and Mr. Meldon, one to alter the constitution and government of county infirmaries in Ireland. There are probably other Irish Bills which we may have overlooked, and which are yet to come; but it is evident that there is plenty of work already cut out for the House of Commons, and that the Parliamentary debates will consist chiefly of discussions on Irish subjects. Besides these Bills, there are notices to call attention to various questions—such as intermediate education, National School teachers, the Irish Society, and that momentous subject, the blending of Irish with Scotch whisky, which, in the eyes of true patriots of the former country, is of course a most atrocious kind of adulteration. Mr. Butt has a motion for a Select Committee to inquire into and report upon "the nature, extent, and the grounds of the demand made by a large proportion of the Irish people"—an assumption likely to be questioned—"for the restoration to Ireland of an Irish Parliament, with power to control the internal affairs of that country." It is possible that, among other points submitted to the House, it may be intended to direct its attention to the question how, if Irish members are to occupy the whole time of the British Parliament, the affairs of the rest of the United Kingdom are to be carried on.

It will of course be indignantly denied that all this sudden accumulation of Irish business has been devised simply for the sake of wasting time and showing that the Irish members have it in their power, if they choose, to embarrass and annoy the House of Commons, and perhaps on some critical occasion to bring it to a deadlock. Even, however, if we suppose that the course they have adopted has been dictated solely by motives of the purest and loftiest patriotism, and a conscientious belief that Ireland is really urgently in want of all this legislation, a little reflection will show that conduct of this kind is hardly calculated in the long run to promote those feelings which are most favourable to Irish interests. At the first glance it may seem that the more troublesome any set of representatives can make themselves at Westminster, the greater would be the temptation to get rid of them by allowing them to set up a Parliament of their own; but this is rather a short-sighted view, inasmuch as the temper of Irish members while a part of the British Legislature would naturally be taken as a test of the spirit in which they would be likely to act as an independent body. Moreover, though it is possible for a small number of members by sharp practice or perverse disregard of public convenience to snatch an occasional surprise, the House of Commons has after all the means of protecting itself again any systematic attempt to waste time and obstruct the general administration of the country. It will be remembered how last Session an Irish member spun out a speech by endless quotations from books, and it may be feared that the expedient will be repeated. An Irish Bill, however trifling, almost invariably occupies more hours than any other business; so that a multitude of Irish Bills is really a serious difficulty. The forms and orders of the House of Commons are of a very delicate and artificial character, and are based on the assumption that all the members are equally anxious to maintain order and promote dispatch of business and mutual convenience. A small group of unmannerly members is quite sufficient to make a formidable obstruction if it chooses to act in concert in a particular way. Everybody knows what an eel is in a water-pipe; and it is only because

there is a prevalence of good feeling and gentlemanly courtesy among the great body of members that the business of the House is got through at all. Any one who watches the proceedings must have observed how—as, for instance, on the question of the exclusion of strangers—a departure from the ordinary course at once causes a confusion which it is difficult to set right. So delicate a contrivance as the machinery for maintaining order in the House of Commons ought to be jealously guarded against rough usage. Nothing could be more unfortunate than that those who endeavour to obtain an unfair hold on the House should be met with reprisals in the same spirit; but of course, if real necessity should arise, the House will be able to express its sense of the annoyance to which it may be subjected. Great allowance must be made for the exigencies of a political agitation which requires spirited advertising in order to keep up the flow of subscriptions; but it may be safely assumed that there is a majority in the House of Commons on the side of order and amenity.

THE CANADIAN MILITIA.

AT a time when general attention is turned towards military subjects, and to the means which, in the event of hostilities, would be available for the protection of the Empire, a Report on the condition of the forces of our most powerful colony cannot fail to excite interest. Since the withdrawal of the Imperial troops, the burden of providing for her defence has fallen entirely on Canada; and, being both unwilling and unable to maintain a standing army, her Government has devoted the small amount of money at its disposal to the organization of a Militia. This force has been placed under the command of an Imperial officer—Major-General Smyth—who, having made a tour of inspection over a distance of eleven thousand miles, of which two thousand were performed on horseback, submits his Report to the Dominion Parliament.

To many readers the most interesting part of this Report will be that which deals with the vast territory lying between the province of Manitoba and the Rocky Mountains, and drained by the Saskatchewan and its tributaries. This country, described by Captain Butler as the Great Lone Land, appears to be awaiting the settlers who, when means of communication have been rendered more complete, will probably make it their home. In the meantime the Indian tribes continue to hunt over those parts which the buffalo has not deserted, and claim the protection of the Government against the adventurers who, as whisky traders, threaten them with demoralization and destruction. To make the arm of the law felt in those distant territories, a force of three hundred mounted constabulary was recently organized, and General Smyth was directed to report on their efficiency and on the effect produced by their presence. His Report, we are glad to say, is eminently satisfactory; the illicit trade in spirituous liquors, with its attendant evils, has been stopped; and the Blackfoot Indians—the most warlike of the Canadian tribes—have been the first to acknowledge the benefits they derive from the withdrawal of the temptations which, whilst unable to resist, they clearly recognize as the precursor of ruin and of death. Their chiefs held a conference with General Smyth at the foot of the Rocky Mountains, and after expressing their satisfaction at the security afforded them by the presence of the mounted police, requested him to represent to the Government their wishes for the conclusion of treaties for the allotment of land similar to those accorded to the Eastern Prairie Indians.

So far all promises well, and the friendly spirit in which the officers of the United States army across the border met General Smyth, and their evident desire to promote arrangements conducive to good order on the frontiers, afford an additional hope for the preservation of peace throughout the hitherto lawless regions of the Far West. It would be a curious subject for speculation to prognosticate the components of the future population of these regions. Icelanders, and Mennonites from Southern Russia, are already cultivating farms in Manitoba; French Canadians, half breeds, and Scotch servants of the Hudson Bay Company congregate round the old trading posts; whilst at Kootenay Pass, in the Rocky Mountains, a Chinese settlement claims protection from the Canadian authorities. The presence of the police and of their horses necessitates the cultivation of cereals, and especially of oats round their several barracks, and will lead to trade which will gradually people the wilderness, whose soil, climate, and mineral productions appear to invite the settler. Surveys have already been made, and the frontier has been marked out, although the buffalo by knocking down the pillars carefully placed by the engineers will, unless checked, do much to destroy the fruits of their labour.

A ride across country from Manitoba to British Columbia was, however, only an incident in General Smyth's tour of inspection. The gist of the Report deals with the present condition of the Militia force on which Canada relies for protection against foreign foes, and for the maintenance of good order within her extended territory. This force is called out annually for twelve days' drill, and the numbers so trained amounted during the last year to nearly twenty-nine thousand, half of which were furnished by Ontario. The General speaks highly of the intelligence, the physical qualities, and the aptitude for military duties of both officers and men, although he points out the almost impossibility of attaining a sufficiently high standard of efficiency, or even of preserving from damage and destruction the arms, accoutrements, and clothing of the force, without some permanent and educated

regimental staff. He had previously recommended a paid adjutant for each battalion; but as this proposition did not find favour with those who control the national purse, he has reduced his request to a sergeant-major, who would also act as storeroom-keeper. He also advocates training-schools for cavalry and infantry, as well as increased inducements for officers to pass through the shorter courses at the Artillery Schools at Quebec and Kingston. The Military College at the latter place is still in embryo, the Superintendent, Lieut.-Colonel Hewett, being the only officer who has actually received his appointment. It is to begin on a very modest scale, only twenty-two cadets being admitted in the first year. A great part of the fortifications at Quebec is reported to be falling into disrepair, and the absence of any guns of calibre sufficient to stop an ironclad is commented upon as a marked deficiency in the armament of a fortress which is supposed to command the entrance to the water-way of Canada. The warlike stores are indeed small in quantity; even of Snider ammunition there are not 140 rounds apiece for 50,000 men in the reserve magazines, although not a cartridge can be manufactured on that side of the Atlantic. In fact, the military resources of Canada are at a low ebb. The money voted for purposes of defence is small in amount, and in some respects commensurate value is not obtained from its expenditure. Throughout the Dominion, and especially in Ontario, a military spirit exists; the annual training is popular, the men are of a good stamp, and the officers avail themselves of the scanty means of instruction which their yearly drill affords; but it is useless to conceal the fact that the efficiency of the Militia is not built on solid foundations. The lessons taught in the barracks of the regular regiments formerly stationed throughout the country are still partially remembered, and a traditional standard of the efficiency to which the Militia should strive to reach is maintained; but, as years pass by, these recollections become more and more dim, and gradually, but not the less surely, will the military organization deteriorate.

For this result Canada is not so much to be blamed as the mother-country. For many years dependent on the presence of a large force of Imperial troops, Canada did little for her own protection. Roused by the great American Civil War, and by the troubles on her frontier of which it was partially the cause, a numerous Militia was formed on paper, and during the Fenian disturbances a considerable force was called out, drilled, and disciplined. Training-schools were established at the headquarters of the various regular regiments, and the services of able officers were secured to organize and command the several camps of instruction. The reports of the aptitude of the Canadian Militia for military work were very encouraging, and it appeared probable that in a short time a vigorous system of professional training would have been instituted. Suddenly the policy changed. The troops were withdrawn without any provision having been made for a continuance of the education they were affording; fortresses which had just been built at great cost were handed over unarmed to a Government which could not even afford to keep them from falling into disrepair, and stores which in many instances were old and obsolete were sold, at no mean price and after considerable haggling, to departments which, even if the articles had been serviceable, did not know how to use or preserve them. The military schools fell into decay and consequent disrepute; outside Halifax there was not a company, a squadron, or a battery which could furnish a pattern to the Militia, and Canada was left, unaided by the mother-country, to provide for her own means of defence. Considerable soreness was felt throughout the country at the manner in which the withdrawal of the troops had been effected; a period of apathy was the result, and the military organization threatened to collapse. However, the instincts of a nation proud of its connexion with England, and resolved to maintain its position, prevented so great a misfortune. Efforts were made to provide schools of gunnery, at which officers of all branches of the service might be trained, and these schools formed small but not inefficient garrisons for the two fortresses of Quebec and Kingston. The annual training of the Militia in camps of instruction was continued and the services of a few Imperial officers obtained. Recently the Government has decided on the formation of a military college at Kingston, with the object of training cadets as officers, and has asked to be supplied with three or four officers of the regular army to act as instructors. The request does not appear unreasonable; but hitherto the numerous difficulties which official routine has (perhaps unavoidably) thrown in the way of its fulfilment have delayed their appointment. In fact, England does not recognize the importance of fostering the military spirit of her colonies. Much might be done with little or no expenditure of money. One infantry regiment stationed in Canada, one squadron of cavalry, and one battery of artillery, involving no additional charge on the army estimates, would go far towards raising the standard of the Militia; whilst of the many staff officers who, having been trained at Sandhurst, are without employment, a few might be spared to assist in the instruction of the young men who are willing and ready to be educated on English models. If England were involved in a great European struggle, Canada would readily send assistance; and a well-organized force, such as she could with little difficulty equip, would be no mean addition to our army, and would well repay the very slight cost which in peace-time our Treasury might be called on to pay. A really broad view of the organization of the Imperial army should comprehend not merely the forces of England and of India, but those of the great colonies, which, instead of

being a weakness, ought to be a source of military strength to the mother-country. Times have changed since—only a few years past—it was the fashion among a certain type of politicians to look askance at our colonial possessions, and even indirectly to advocate the dismemberment of the Empire. Now a more truly national policy prevails, but it is only gradually that the apathy in respect to colonial institutions can be overcome, or interest awakened in even such vital questions as those which pertain, not to the defence of any especial colony, but to the organization of a military system which will embrace all portions of the Empire. Canada may in many respects be slow to grasp the importance of an efficient army administration, but not the less ought the impulse to be given by the mother-country, who should be ready to meet more than half-way any indications of energy and any desire for improvement.

CROWNER'S QUEST LAW.

THE zeal of coroners is always breaking out in some fresh place. At the last sittings of the Central Criminal Court Dr. Hardwicke had an opportunity of showing the sublime contempt of a medical coroner for forms of law. An inquisition had been found by a jury, charging no particular individual, but merely alleging that "the owners of the property" were guilty of manslaughter. It is stated that Dr. Hardwicke, after the inquisition had been thus found in blank, if we may so say, inserted the name of Mr. Beal, imagining, from some correspondence, that he was the person answerable for an alleged neglect. If this statement had not been made in Court, we should regard it as an audacious fiction. A medical coroner cannot be expected to understand or value the niceties of criminal law, but it would be easy for him, in default of common sense of his own, to obtain the help of a clerk who would keep him out of flagrant blunders. An inquisition, be it observed, is equivalent to an indictment, and must be framed with the same exactness. The jury are at liberty to find a verdict of murder or manslaughter against some person unknown, but when they have so found their verdict and recorded it, the coroner is not at liberty to strike out the words "some person unknown" and insert "John Smith." And yet this is in effect what Dr. Hardwicke did. It appears that an elderly lady was walking in the Liverpool Road on a day in February, and she fell on the pavement and received injuries of which she died. Dr. Hardwicke held an inquest on her, and the jury returned a verdict attributing her death to the unprotected state of the pavement in the Liverpool Road, and adding that "the owners thereof were guilty of manslaughter." This was the jury's work, and the Coroner finished it by putting in the name of Mr. Beal, who, as is now stated, was not even an owner of the defective pavement. The joke is heightened by the circumstance that Dr. Hardwicke professes a "long friendship" with Mr. Beal, and assures him that he acted only from a sense of duty in carrying out the verdict of the jury. It is an odd way of showing friendship to indict a man, although in a blundering way, for manslaughter, which is felony. An error in the coroner's office has been, says Dr. Hardwicke, the cause of all this trouble, but he wishes to pay Mr. Beal's legal expenses, and trusts that their friendly relations will be uninterrupted. One of Mr. Trollope's recent heroes is tried for murder, and the Attorney-General of the day does his best to hang him; but when they meet after the trial in society they shake hands with apparent cordiality. Manners, as a French dramatist says, ameliorate themselves from day to day, and the form "My dear Mr. Beal" is now usually adopted towards persons to whom one has done or is doing all the harm one can. It is, in truth, the modern substitute for the kiss of Judas. No doubt, if Mr. Beal were reasonably thought guilty of manslaughter, it would be the Coroner's duty to have him prosecuted, notwithstanding their long friendship. But in that case we should expect the Coroner to be guided by law and common sense, whereas his actual proceedings exhibit a sort of confused analogy to those dealings with crossed cheques about which we have lately heard so much. A cheque may be crossed generally, and afterwards the name of a particular banker may be written in, just as the jury found a verdict against owners of property, and the Coroner inserted his dear Mr. Beal. It must be remembered that an inquisition is signed and sealed by the coroner and the jurors, and the notion of altering in a material particular an instrument thus solemnly completed is, to say the least, unbusinesslike. It must be allowed, however, that persons who ought to know better often make informal alterations in their wills, and Dr. Hardwicke's mistake was similar to this.

One of the uses of medical coroners is to make work for lawyers. In Mr. Wakley's time the practice prevailed in Middlesex of refusing to examine at an inquest persons whose conduct was thought likely to become afterwards the subject of criminal inquiry. Mr. Wakley did not invent this practice, but he seems to have adopted it as unobjectionable. There had been an inquest on a soldier who had died at Hounslow, and a medical journal had described the coroner's proceedings as a needless display of ingenuity to get up against the colonel of a regiment, or the surgeon, or a farrier, "a colourable semblance of murder." We believe that this was the case of the soldier who died after flogging, and the inquest was so managed that the persons whose conduct had been impugned were denied the opportunity of explanation. The Court of Exchequer declared this practice to be highly improper, and expressed the hope that persons would be permitted to make any statements they might wish, when they had any material information to com-

municate. The Court said that the refusal to accept a person's testimony casts a gross imputation on him, and "such a practice is monstrous, and most harassing." It is fair to Mr. Wakley's memory to state that the comments made by a medical journal on his conduct in reference to this case were held to be in the main libellous, and he recovered considerable damages; but nevertheless it was clear that he had managed this inquest in an illegal and absurd manner. "It is not right," said one of the judges, "to assume that a man is guilty, and the witness may guard his own interest in giving his evidence." In the recent case the Coroner seems to have assumed that his dear Mr. Beal was guilty, on an *ex parte* statement, which turned out to be incorrect, that he was one of the "owners" to whom the jury imputed the old lady's death; and it did not occur to him that his proceeding was contrary, we will not say to law, but to the principles of justice which are supposed to be generally understood.

It must not, however, be supposed that medical coroners have a monopoly of absurdity and illegality. Mr. Carter, Coroner for Surrey, has lately delivered, if he has been reported correctly, an official opinion which could not be surpassed in extravagance by any of his brethren who write "M.D." after their names. According to the *Times* of this day week, Mr. Carter held an inquest on the body of a deceased man, and a mechanic named Lane stated that at one o'clock on Sunday morning he saw bubbles in the canal Peckham; he spoke to a constable, and the body of the deceased was recovered. In one of the pockets was found a paper stating that the deceased was tired of life. The usual verdict was found, and the Coroner severely lectured Lane for being out so late at night, and said that, if the letter had not been found on the body, he (Lane) would in all probability have been sent to take his trial for wilful murder. Some years ago it became material to explain in a Scotch case of murder why an important piece of evidence was not produced at the trial, and it appeared that a girl told her mistress that she had seen early in the morning something having apparent reference to this case, on which the mistress said, "Never let me hear you say a word about that again, or you'll be getting into trouble, I know." The mistress evidently supposed that justice was generally administered on the broad principle of Mr. Carter. A person who is out of doors late at night or early in the morning is presumably accessory to any crime that may be committed during the small hours; and, indeed, if it be doubtful whether a crime has been committed or not, that presumption is to be made which shall impute guilt to those who are detected in irregularity. This Coroner is like one of those old ladies who believe that a man who smokes a pipe is necessarily "dissipated." He had before him the question whether the man came to the water, or the water came to the man, and it might be thought that any evidence helping the jury to find it "Christian burial" would be welcome. The nursery rhyme says that, if the children had been at home, they would not have been drowned; and if the bubbles which Lane saw indicated recent death, the verdict ought to have been *felo-de-se*, on the principle of assigning the worst motive to the act of anybody who is abroad after midnight. The unfortunate witness was severely lectured, and refused compensation for his day occupied in attending Court; so that he lost his day because he had missed his night. This, however, was only a small matter. The grave consideration is that this Coroner proposes to assume that any person found near, or having anything to do with, a dead body after midnight has committed murder. In one of the *Arabian Nights* stories a corpse is carried from place to place in the streets of Bagdad by a succession of persons who feel that nocturnal proximity to it will bring them under suspicion involving at least the bastinado or some other form of torture. Neither in Middlesex nor in Surrey does crowner's quest law appear to have greatly improved since Mr. Wakley's time. He would have refused to hear any statement from the colonel who authorized the flogging of the soldier, or the doctor who superintended, or the farmer who administered it. He might or might not have allowed his jury to find a verdict of murder against those persons without hearing them. The practice in Surrey now is to hear the suspected person, but with a foregone conclusion as to his guilt.

It is a pity that the ancient and honourable office of coroner should be thus degraded. We are told that formerly the law gave such high credit to an inquisition of death found before a coroner that the judges would not receive a verdict acquitting a person of the death of a man found against him by the coroner's inquest, unless the jury finding such acquittal had also found what other person did the fact, or by what other means the party came to his death. If this were the law now, the administration of it would have to be put into more safe hands. Parliament supplementing the Common Law has carefully provided that men shall not in general be put on trial in criminal courts unless a bill of indictment has been preferred to and found by a grand jury, after some preliminary proceeding before magistrates. But a coroner's inquisition still receives so much credit that, if properly found, it supplies the place of an indictment. A few years ago some coroners had a notion that if, after an inquest duly held, and the body buried, the coroner received further information, he might dig up the body and hold another inquest. This notion was founded on a passage in the *Year Book* of 21 Ed. 4, which states that "Le coroner luy prist hors de son sepulture et prist novel indictment quel rehoise tout la circumstance de la matier en fait del mordre." The indictment (as they called the inquisition at that day) stated that one of the servants of the said Wingfield, who was at the death of the

man, "corne son corne," and said, "Here is an obit for his soul," and another servant said, "I would the stroke had lit on his master's neck," "et ceo fuit Jenney le Juge," which is explained to mean that Serjeant Jenney had become judge of the King's Bench early in that year. The disinterment of one of these old cases in its musty clothing of Norman-French and dog-Latin is almost as unsavoury a proceeding as that of Serjeant, afterwards Judge Jenney, who, "fecit dictum coronatorem iterum effodire extra terram interfectum xiv dies sepultum." The Court of Queen's Bench, after much discussion of this supposed precedent, concluded that it did not clearly appear from the report that the first inquest had been held *super vium corporis*, and therefore it was not a clear authority for what had been done in the case before them. It follows therefore that coroners cannot, in general, hold more than one inquest on one body, but they may, and often do, hold one inquest where they ought to hold none. It is not long since they assumed to hold inquests in cases of fire, and it would seem that any person who is out of doors late at night, at least in Surrey, might be committed for trial for arson if a fire happened to occur. The public will stand a good deal of oppression and interference of any kind that they are used to. But it is dangerous to make an antique institution ridiculous.

REVIEWS.

BAIN ON THE EMOTIONS AND THE WILL.*

THIS third edition of Professor Bain's *Emotions and Will* is so much enlarged, and so far rewritten, that it is in large measure a new book, and therefore may properly be made an exception to our usual practice, and be introduced to our readers by a substantive notice. In the case of a book so widely known, we need offer no apology for assuming a knowledge in the reader of Mr. Bain's treatment and general view of his subject, and shall deal only with the new matter introduced into this edition.

The first remark which is called for is one on the great pains which have been really taken to make this edition better than the two which have preceded it. There may be exaggeration in the common belief that it is easier to write a new book than to correct an old book; easier to write than to rewrite. But the belief is only an exaggeration of a certain truth. All authors who have attempted it know that rewriting is the most irksome of tasks. Indeed, so painful is it that few will impose it on themselves. The greater part of our English literature of to-day bears obvious marks of the crude haste of first draft. Our books are now thrown off, as the daily paper is thrown off, written from the inspiration of the moment, without correction or reconsideration. The newspaper can be produced in no other way. And, written as the newspaper article often is—often after midnight—with the compositor waiting for copy, it is surprising how good even in style and composition such articles are. But with the book there is no such pressure, except, indeed, the general hurry in which all our life in this busy country is lived. It is the painful effort of rewriting which deters authors from elaborating what they give to the public. The freshness of subject at the first draft is in itself an excitement which lifts us over the drudgery of the pen. When this drudgery has to be undergone without the stimulus of novelty, the birth-pains of composition become too intense to be faced. The operation of recasting thoughts is not merely laborious, it has attached to it a mental pain of a peculiar kind. It implies a control of the will over the intellectual processes, of a more severe kind than the spontaneous attention which easily follows the natural flow of the habitual thoughts. Reproduction, reconstruction, revision, improvement, are far more difficult operations than production and extempore gush.

If our books in their first editions have seldom the benefit of their authors' second thoughts, it might be supposed that, when a second edition is called for, an author would be willing to bestow some pains in improving his work, which the public has shown to have some value to them by buying it. This is far from being always, or often, the case. The sale of an edition, instead of stimulating our authors to work towards completeness, is often taken as a reason for being satisfied with a book as it is. The publisher, too, has an interest in hurrying on the new edition before the demand shall subside. Slovenliness of correction is often carried to the point of leaving a confessed error in the text, and placing its correction at the foot of the page in a bracketed note with the later date of the edition in which it was first added. The "limæ labor," incessant correction, is the condition of the classic style. But this is not true only of style. The contents of a book require recasting quite as much as the language. The subject is first conceived in the author's mind in embryo. The writing the book is a process of growth and development. It is like the construction of a picture. There is first the rude charcoal sketch, a bare marking out of the boundary. Then this boundary is outlined so as to enclose the great masses. Next comes the laying of the dead colour within this outline, and so to the painting of each square inch in detail, film over film, till the painter has so covered his canvas that he can add nothing. But the writer has this vast advantage over the artist, that his book can

* *The Emotions and the Will*. By Alexander Bain, LL.D., Professor of Logic in the University of Aberdeen. Third Edition. London: Longmans & Co. 1875.

always be repainted. A painter has no second editions. In books, a new edition is the author's opportunity. If this opportunity is rarely used by our authors, it is partly owing to defective mental discipline, partly to the material conditions of publication. Many of our books—even the books of our best men—are first thoughts. They are the young impressions of vigorous intellect in its early wrestle with some untried class of facts. Such books have the great charm of freshness; they have an originality, not of subject, but of mental spring. The very merit of such books is a merit which is incompatible with revision. When the author sits down to correct his book for a new edition, the chances are that he prunes away the luxuriant growth in which its charm lay. The spirit is gone, and he cannot replace it, as he wrote from animal spirits, and not from knowledge. Not less unfavourable to elaboration are the conditions of publication such as they are now. Book-producing is a trade, and is subject therefore to the same necessities as all trade. It is more advantageous to turn out many of a common article than a few of a superior class. A writer has his choice between perfecting one book and extemporizing a great many. It is the choice between reputation and money. Few authors are in such a happy position as to be able to choose the former. If Professor Bain had thought only of being paid for his time, he would doubtless have laid it out to far more advantage in writing a new book than in re-writing, as he has done, the present. Had he simply reprinted the second edition of *The Emotions and the Will* as it stood in 1865, he would probably not have sold a single copy fewer than he will now sell of this greatly improved edition.

The changes introduced into the present edition, we need hardly say, do not amount to alteration in the point of view from which the subject is regarded. A reviewer of the first edition, Mr. Herbert Spencer, writing anonymously in the *Medico-Chirurgical Review*, brought against Mr. Bain's work the charge of being a collection of miscellaneous observations on mind, rather than a scientific analysis. It bore the stamp of the inchoate state of psychology. Its classification was the crude and rough first generalization which in the infancy of knowledge suffices to bring the phenomena into some sort of order, so that science may go to work on them. It was, he urged, a natural history of the emotions based on external characters. This criticism is less a criticism of Mr. Bain's book than a denial of the existence of psychology as a separate science, or as a science at all. If urged as a defect against Mr. Bain's book, the obvious answer is that at present there is no other mode of treating the psychical phenomena possible. The old psychologists, relying as they did on one source of observation only—namely, consciousness—had a uniform basis. The division into intellect, sense, emotion, and will was not only an obvious arrangement, but one which satisfied the state of the science. But it is impossible now to confine our survey of mind to the facts testified by our individual consciousness. Other, various and distinct, branches of evidence have come forward, which not only supplement consciousness, but have thrown it into the background as a quite subordinate, and even suspicious, method of investigating the facts. Physiology has risen into first importance as a method. Comparative physiology, natural history, development, social phenomena, little used hitherto, all have been called in to aid. This has destroyed the simplicity and unity of the science. We cannot tell whether the phenomena we are investigating are psychical or physiological. Biology tends more and more to bring the facts within the range of its own principles, but it has not yet done so wholly. It would be premature to abolish mental science, because we have not yet been able to analyse the complex states of feeling or thought of which we are conscious into the simple elements—the germ, the embryo. Nor do we know whether it will ever be possible to do this. It follows that, if we are to treat the manifestations of mind at all, we cannot neglect any one of these sources of information. If the want of unity of principle, the shifting basis of investigation, deprives psychology of all right to the title of a science, it only shares this defect with politics, with economics, with sociology, with therapeutics, and with every branch of inquiry into which the complex organism of man enters. If not a science, psychology is a colligation of observed facts at once true, important, and analogous. Call it, if you will, the natural history of man.

Professor Bain has not in the present volume met this objection, which had been brought against his treatment, with any direct answer. Perhaps he thought a criticism based on *à priori* speculations too remote from his subject. Yet he has not been wholly uninfluenced by it in revising for the present edition. He has introduced a whole chapter in which he directly discusses the bearing of the evolution hypothesis, and the theory of inheritance, on the emotions. He has endeavoured to find a ground for precision of scientific handling by introducing a sort of measure of quantity of feeling. In the treatment of the æsthetic emotions Professor Bain has pursued his analysis of these complex effects into their rudimentary sensations still further than he had done before. And generally, throughout the volume, the tendency of the changes introduced strikes us as being in the direction of carrying back the complex towards the simple embryo, rather than in that of the accumulation of new concrete facts. This is more especially the case in the first part, which treats of the Emotions, than in the latter half of the volume, of which the Will is the subject. Perhaps this is only because in the earlier editions Professor Bain had already pushed the analysis of volition into its component elements—spontaneous movement and the law of self-conservation—as far as it is possible to carry it.

Among the topics which make their appearance for discussion for the first time in this edition, one is the possibility of estimating quantity of emotion. "Accurate measurement," in the words of Sir W. Thomson, "seems a less lofty and dignified work than looking for something new. But nearly all the grand discoveries of science have been but the reward of accurate measurement and patient labour in the minute sifting of numerical results." As there is no possibility of computing amount of emotion, the subject is not only removed from the category of exact science, but is in a high degree vague and unsatisfactory. All statements respecting degrees of happiness and misery are untrustworthy. We cannot pass beyond indefinite adjectives, as where Sir Arthur Helps speaks of "the extraordinary pleasure of grappling with a scientific problem." This defect in the subject is indeed common to all the "moral sciences," as they are called, and has been matter of complaint from the time of Aristotle. But it is to the employment of consciousness as the instrument of investigation that the objection is especially fatal. As by consciousness we only know our own emotions, a standard of their intensity, which implies comparison, is impossible. We are obliged to relinquish consciousness for the observation of the signs of feeling—gesticulation, energy of pursuit, persistence, repetition. Language is the least trustworthy interpreter of feeling, as we have to find some means of seeing through reticence, reserve, disguise, dissimulation, and hypocrisy. After we have registered the signs, we are still in want of a standard. Nothing more exact is to be had, according to Mr. Bain's admission, than an average roughly derived from the common observation of human action. Aristotle was content with three stages, or degrees—a mean, an excess, and a deficiency; the average attainment of human nature being taken as the standard of the "how much." Professor Bain suggests that the scale might be extended, and thus two or three grades above an assumed mean be obtained. The same scale of measurement might be applied to emotion, by supposing it to begin at zero—the lowest degree, that is, of any assignable value. We might pause at the greatest height of intensity that is ordinarily reached, and reserve an additional epithet for some pitch of very rare occurrence.

The chapter on Evolution as applied to mind is wholly new. The introduction of the topic was rendered inevitable by the prominence which this aspect of psychological questions has been acquiring since the publication of Mr. Bain's second edition. Here, while bringing the facts forward without reserve, the general tendency of the exposition is to impress us with the belief that the hypothesis of heredity has been strained too far. In particular, Professor Bain will not explain by its means the moral sentiments. And it is upon its application to the explanation of the conscience that the interest of the inheritance theory chiefly turns. Looking at the precocity of the early impressions connected with the outer world, Mr. Bain allows that the experience of the individual can hardly account for them; but he declares without hesitation against the intuitive character of the moral sentiment. Certain primitive powers belonging to the being at its birth are indispensable to the growth of our moral feelings. Such are sympathy, the ordinary action of will, and the fundamental emotions, love and anger. These inborn, or evolved, powers of the mind being supposed in the individual, the formation of conscience is to be ascribed to education under authority, which constitutes in the moral sentiment a distinct and peculiar phenomenon, different from all the other exercises of will, sympathy, love, or any compound of these.

The chapter on Belief, in the former edition, always appeared to us something less than quite satisfactory. Was it from some consciousness of this on the part of the author himself that he has undertaken to rewrite the discussion for the present edition? We cannot say that the subject has even yet assumed in Mr. Bain's hands its final shape. Not that this prevents the chapter from offering, as it does in abundance, striking views and suggestive remarks. But, in the first place, belief is treated by Professor Bain as if it were one defined, clearly-marked psychological state, as much as memory or attention. Instead of this, the term is one which, being perpetually in our mouths, is applied to a great variety of conscious states, themselves of an indefinite nature, passing through the whole scale from mere assimilation of a momentary impression to the radical conviction on which our intellectual fabric rests. In the second place, the test of belief which is here proposed—readiness to act upon it—though all-sufficing for the commerce of life, has no metaphysical validity. So far as one single mental state can be singled out from a multitude of cognate phenomena for description under the name of "belief," it is a purely intellectual condition. As such, its place is in Logic, and not in a volume on the Emotions and the Will. True, the reflex action of feeling, pursuit, and desire on belief has to be put forward. But these are influences, not elements. More than this, they are illegitimate influences; for in the properly constituted intellect the amount of belief accorded to a statement is assumed to be exactly proportioned to the evidence. Mr. Bain's treatment of belief in this chapter is really an enumeration of those irregular influences—the idola—which are allowed by human weakness to cloud or override the intellect in its struggles to arrive at truth. It is not an account of belief, but of the sources of perverted beliefs. Mr. Bain himself says:—

It is curious to observe the balancing of the two opposing tendencies—primitive credulity and acquired scepticism. Probably few minds ever attain the exact adjustment; we have either too much of the primitive credulity, or are too deeply stung by the reverses. In the mass of mankind, the credulity is in excess; there is an overweening belief in the uniformity

of nature; too little laying to heart the jars of interrupted expectations. The great master fallacy of the human mind is believing too much, believing without or against evidence. The signal example is over-generalization, the vice of every human being for the early part of life, and of more than nineteen-twentieths to the last.—P. 513.

These observations are undeniably just, but they are what we should have expected to find under the head of "Fallacies" in logic, rather than in the division "Will." The same remark applies to the interesting topic touched upon in p. 533 and following, as to the nature of our belief in memory, and the distinction we make between sensation and idea.

STUBBS'S CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY.—VOL. II.*

THERE is a certain difficulty in reviewing such a book as that of Professor Stubbs, because the words which naturally express its character are not unlikely to seem exaggerated to those who have not used the book itself. We say "used" the book; because no one can really tell what such a book is, no one can fully know what really are the obligations of historical learning to Mr. Stubbs, till he has done something much more than read the book. It is only by what may be called experimental use, by that kind of use which comes of special study for the purpose of getting up this or that special subject, that we grasp, in all their depth, the two great characteristics of Mr. Stubbs's History, its absolute exhaustiveness and its unfailing accuracy. Mr. Stubbs's History is, as it professes to be, a Constitutional History; it therefore does not take in, or profess to take in, every side of our national history. It is indeed wonderful to see how wide a range constitutional history can be made to take when all its bearings are duly looked at. Mr. Stubbs rightly shows that a great deal comes under the head of constitutional history which it did not occur to earlier writers to bring under that head. Still a Constitutional History is a history from a special point of view; the things to be mentioned and to be passed by are not always the same as they would be in a narrative history of the same bulk; still more commonly do the points which are dwelled on take a different proportion to one another from what they would take in a narrative history. Mr. Stubbs of course assumes a fair knowledge of English history in the ordinary sense in any one who begins to read him. In a mere reading of such a book one of course learns much; but it is only in a process beyond mere reading that we find out the full strength of our teacher. Let a man undertake himself to write on any of the subjects or periods which are dealt with in Mr. Stubbs's work; it is then that he will learn in its fulness what Mr. Stubbs's work really is. He will then thoroughly take in how Mr. Stubbs's book differs, not merely in degree but in kind, from any other book of the same class. The process is in one way a little disappointing. We speak the experience of more than one when we say that, in going over ground which Mr. Stubbs has gone over, it is impossible, or next door to it, to find anything to say that is positively new. It is almost as impossible to find any point on which Mr. Stubbs's conclusions can be disputed with any show of reason. The writer whose course takes him on any part of Mr. Stubbs's ground may indeed expand and illustrate this or that particular point; but he will have nothing to do but to expand and illustrate. He will find the main work done to his hand, in a way in which he will certainly not find it done to his hand in any other book dealing with so large a period of English history.

In saying this, we are of course speaking of what has been the experience of other scholars with regard to the first volume; there has as yet hardly been time for any one to put the second volume to the same minute and searching test. But it is plain, even from an ordinary reading, that the second volume is of exactly the same character as the former one. We see in the second, as in the first, all the signs of the scholar who can be fully trusted on all points. Here, as in the other, is the research which nothing escapes, the accuracy which never fails, the judgment which never swerves. Here, as in the other, we see the same calm and comprehensive view, taking in every side of a subject, the view of the true historian as distinguished from the petty and partial treatment of lawyers, heralds, partisans of this or that political theory. That Mr. Stubbs is precise and positive on every point we will not say; but it is only those who know nothing of the nature of his work and its difficulties who could expect him to be precise and positive on every point. Through a great part of the present volume he has to deal with matters which are really more difficult than anything either in earlier or in later times. He has to deal with the settlement of our Parliamentary system, with the gradual process by which the constitution of the several elements of the State, and their exact powers and functions, were settled. Any one who knows how all this was done by a series of efforts and experiments, who knows the strange irregularities of the time, the way in which the precedents of one Parliament were by no means always followed in the next, will see that the difficulty lies in the very abundance of the materials. It is easier to deal with earlier times, when materials are scantier, and when, unless we are to hold our peace altogether, theory must be allowed a certain range. It is easier again to deal with later times, when constitutional principles had become fixed. In describing a Witenagemót of the Confessor or of the Conqueror, all that we can do is to put together such slight and occasional indications as we can get. In describing

a Parliament from the sixteenth century onwards, we are dealing with a body of which the constitution and the main principles of procedure are fixed beyond dispute. In the intermediate state, in dealing with a Parliament of Edward the Third, everything is uncertain. The materials are endless; but what they largely go to prove is how unsettled everything was. This chaotic state of things, when things were moving in the direction of progress, but with slow and fitful steps, is the subject of the second part of Mr. Stubbs's first volume. The former part of the book deals with a more attractive time, that of the growth of Parliament itself in the days of Henry the Third and Edward the First. The political and moral difference between the two is strongly pointed out by Mr. Stubbs in more than one passage, especially in the pages of singular force and eloquence which wind up the volume. To him the thirteenth century is an heroic age, an age when great men strove for great principles, and when we may not only find matter for satisfaction in the general result of the course of events, but may find distinct pleasure and distinct matter for approval in the events and actors themselves. To the ordinary reader the fourteenth century may perhaps seem more attractive than the thirteenth. It has what is to many minds the charm of a great foreign war, a war which has been tricked out with all the attractions of chivalry and romance. The mass of Englishmen have been carefully taught to see national heroes in Edward the Third and his son, while they are still more carefully taught to look on Edward the First as an unjust aggressor. In Mr. Stubbs's view the wars of both Kings are passed by with but slight notice; to him they are important only in their bearing on constitutional matters. And to the importance of the fourteenth century, both in its constitutional aspect and in many other ways, Mr. Stubbs is fully alive:—

Viewed as a period of constitutional growth it has much to attract the sympathies and to interest the student who is content laboriously to trace out the links of causes and results. In literary history likewise it has a very distinct and significant place; and it is scarcely second to any age in its importance as a time of germination in religious history. In these aspects it might seem to furnish sufficient and more than sufficient matter of attractive disquisition. Yet it is on the whole unattractive, and in England especially so: the political heroes are, as we have seen, men who for some cause or other seem neither to demand nor to deserve admiration; the literature with few exceptions owes its interest either to purely philosophical causes or to its connexion with a state of society and thought which repels more than it attracts; the religious history read impartially is chilling and unedifying; its literature on both sides is a compound of elaborate dialectics and indiscriminate invective, alike devoid of high spiritual aspirations and of definite human sympathies. The national character, although it must be allowed to have grown in strength, has not grown into a knowledge how to use its strength.

He then goes on to complain of the decline both of public and private morality, the growth of luxury and of political vindictiveness. On this last head things undoubtedly got worse and worse from the eleventh century to the sixteenth, possibly even later. On the former head Mr. Stubbs aptly says that "Edward III. celebrating his great feast on the institution of the Order of the Garter in the midst of the Black Death, seems a typical illustration of this side of the life of the century." In the last page of all, and perhaps the most remarkable of all, Mr. Stubbs goes on to say:—

It may seem strange that the training of the thirteenth century, the examples of the patriot barons, the policy of the constitutional king, organiser, and legislator, should have had so lame results; that whilst constitutionally the age is one of progress, morally it should be one of decline, and intellectually one of blossom rather than fruit. But the historian has not yet arisen who can account on the principles of growth, or of reaction, or of alternation, for the tides in the affairs of men. How it was we can read in the pages of the annalists, the poets, the theologians: how it became so we can but guess; why it was suffered we can only understand when we see it overruled for good.

And he winds up with a hint of what is to come in future volumes:—

Weak as is the fourteenth century, the fifteenth is weaker still; more futile, more bloody, more immoral; yet out of it emerges, in spite of all, the truer and brighter day, the season of more general conscious life, higher longings, more forbearing, more sympathetic, purer, riper liberty.

These passages are remarkable, as showing the many-sided powers of the writer's mind, the depth and earnestness of his view of history, equalled only by the wideness and power of his grasp of it. They show also that deep sympathy with right in every form, political and moral, which breathes throughout all Mr. Stubbs's writings. He has throughout the strength, the clearness, the calmness, of the man who looks on his subject as a whole, in whom the minutest study and knowledge of detail has in no way weakened the power of looking all round his vast theme from every possible side. Throughout this volume, as throughout the former one, he writes everywhere as a lover of freedom, as an admirer of the men who strove for freedom; but he is never a mere political partisan. At each stage we wait with a kind of anxiety to see what will be his judgment on the next stage; we do not, as we do in the case of a merely partisan writer, feel sure beforehand what it must be. We feel that we are listening to one with whom truth is before everything—truth in all its varieties, from the loftiest form of moral truth to the minutest truth of a name or a date. In short, this volume, like the one which went before it, shows in its author the highest form of all the highest qualities of the historian in every branch save one. And in that one, if it does not prove their existence, it at least suggests it. Among all Mr. Stubbs's great contributions to historical learning, he has never yet attempted a direct narrative history. Both in this and in the former volume he is often on the verge of it, but only on the verge. He has often to narrate events,

* *The Constitutional History of England in its Origin and Development.* By William Stubbs, M.A. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1875.

but only such events as bear on his constitutional subject. His scheme never calls on him to give a complete consecutive narrative of the events of any one period. Yet when we see in these volumes the grasp which Mr. Stubbs has of men and things and events, and when we think of his living portraits of the Angevin Kings and so many of their contemporaries, his summaries of their reigns in all respects, not merely constitutional, but personal and oecumenical, we feel sure that the constitutional historian of England could also be, if he chose, its narrative historian.

The history of both the centuries dealt with in this volume still lacks its narrator. For Mr. Stubbs to tell the tale of the thirteenth century would be in itself a labour of love; to tell the tale of the fourteenth would be at least a relief after the weariness of working through its constitutional details. A narrative of these two centuries, taking the results of Mr. Stubbs's constitutional labours for granted, would indeed be a work worthy of his powers. And yet, after all, this may not be the special task to which he is most clearly called. We must remember that his constitutional view is not bounded by the four seas of Britain. Both in the Select Charters and in many parts of the present work, he shows that with him the constitutional history of England is only one part of the constitutional history of Europe. We could almost hope that, when he has done with the Constitution of our land, he may go further and point out, in his wide oecumenical spirit, the relations between the political history of England and the political history of so many other lands which started from nearly the same point, but whose course led them to such widely different goals. But for the present we have to deal with what is actually before us, the constitutional history of England from the winning of the Great Charter to the deposition of Richard the Second. We have pointed out some of the chief characteristics of Mr. Stubbs's treatment of the period. In another article we must go more regularly through the book, and say what we have to say as to his dealing with particular points in the story and with particular branches of constitutional development.

THE GREAT DIVIDE.*

BOOKS of travel and adventure in the half-settled States of the Union are the milestones that mark the marvellous progress of the country. Fenimore Cooper laid the scenes of his romances in forests that have now been cleared for generations, and dotted over with the boxes of prosperous citizens. When Washington Irving wrote his *Astoria* and *Tour on the Prairies* the trappers and hunters started from frontier posts which have since sprung up into flourishing cities; and no white man at that time felt easy in his scalp anywhere far to the west of the Missouri. Since then the Mormons in their armed exodus have forced their way to the heart of the continent, and miners and backwoodsmen, setting their faces to the West, marking their broad trails with the bones of men and animals, have been crowding up the locations of their choice in the midst of the favourite hunting-grounds of the savages. From vast districts that have been formed into Territories and States the Indians have been driven back with the buffaloes, or else they have "gone under." And now a little party like Lord Dunraven's can travel comfortably by first-class railway carriage to within 250 miles of the desolate solitudes in the basin of the Yellowstone, and carry out their plans of exploration at leisure, without taking any but the most ordinary precautions against disturbance from hostile Indians. Indians there are, it is true, and they are said to be sometimes troublesome. But, as a matter of fact, they seem very much bound over to keep the peace in those parts by the painful sense of their dwindling numbers. They have either been gathered into reservations by elastic treaties with the Government, or settled in villages under the surveillance of the Indian agents.

The "Great Divide" is the central watershed of Northern America, forming part of the territories of Montana and Wyoming, and three great systems of water have their sources in it. The Yellowstone and the main streams of the Missouri flow towards the east, to unite in their lower courses; the Snake River runs towards the west before turning to the north to become the Columbia; while the Green River, which runs southward, is the main feeder of the Rio Colorado. There are a variety of inducements to tempt the adventurous traveller to visit that Yellowstone country, and the name of "Wonderland" which has been given it by the miners and hunters who were the first to make their way thither is more than enough to excite curiosity. The upper and lower basins of the valley of the Yellowstone contain some of the most remarkable and stupendous volcanic phenomena that are known to exist on the earth's surface. It is true that the scenery to be traversed is sometimes dismal. The track lies through dreary deserts, with an unkindly soil impregnated with alkaline deposits. But the traveller appreciates all the more the pleasures of contrast when he finds himself descending on the banks of some romantic stream, where verdant meadows are enclosed in scented pine woods; and occasionally he comes upon those "natural parks" which have been timbered by nature on a magnificent scale in the very heart of an inhospitable wilderness. The mountains that cluster in rocky knots about the numerous fountain-heads of the great rivers are often exceedingly grand, though they rise from a lofty level; while some of the peaks, like

that of Mount Washbourne, which was ascended by Lord Dunraven, command most varied and extensive views. Finally, there are the Great Falls of the Yellowstone, which, although inferior in height and grandeur to those of Niagara, would themselves repay a long journey. Not that this journey, as we have remarked already, can be said to be either very long or formidable considering the character of the country it leads to. From Corinne, one of the stations on the railway, you may travel by stage to Virginia City, a weary distance of 330 miles, but involving nothing more than discomforts. And, arrived at Virginia City, at which or at one of the trading posts in the vicinity you may make your final arrangements for the expedition through the wilderness, you are only 100 miles from the Lower Geyser Basin on the Yellowstone. In Virginia City, by the way, one has a characteristic illustration of the swift vicissitudes of fortune to which "locations" in these half-inhabited territories are liable. It sprang up so lately as 1863, when "some of the richest placer workings of the continent" were discovered in the numerous gulches and gullies which intersect the bleak bluffs that surround it. But the riches of these placers were worked out; explorations pushed up-stream failed to discover the great deposits of the gold-dust; and the once wealthy place is chiefly abandoned to gangs of industrious Chinamen, who live by washing in the leavings of their predecessors.

Should he have an idea of following on the trail of an expedition of this kind, an Englishman's first inquiries would be naturally after the sport. As to that, Lord Dunraven says very candidly that it is always precarious and seldom of first-rate quality. There are still buffalo to be found on the plains in tolerable abundance, but the herds are so much in the habit of shifting their ground that it is hard to tell how one may best arrange so as to fall in with them. A raw hand is pretty sure to find himself abroad, unless he has the prudence to resign himself blindfold to the tutelage of some resident who has passed master in vicerie. There are deer of various species, and notably the noble wapiti, which are still far from extinct, though the work of extermination goes steadily forward. The graceful prong-horned antelopes are numerous in the plains and in the valleys about the foot of the mountains; while wild goats and the moufflons or mountain sheep are still plentiful among the precipices of the less accessible ranges. But, so far as Lord Dunraven and his companions were concerned, the results of the chase were decidedly disappointing, although he had selected his staff of attendants with great judgment. As henchman and standing counsellor, he had brought with him one Campbell, a Scotch deer-stalker; while for their local experience he had retained the services of a famous American hunter named Texas Jack, and a certain Fred Boteler, who had his ranch on the outskirts of the settled country. Yet the party only succeeded in bagging three wapiti, a bighorn or two, and some of the smaller species of deer; and indeed the scarcity of venison they brought into camp compelled them to change their original plans and return by the way they had gone. Owing partly to a run of ill-luck, partly to their over-sanguine temperaments, the expedition had to go through a good deal of hardship. Having reckoned on being able to provide themselves by means of their rifles, they had loaded their pack-mules with somewhat scanty supplies, with the result that latterly it was all they could do to keep body and soul comfortably together. Chasing the bighorn among the mountain peaks may be exciting enough to be enjoyable when supper and breakfast do not depend on success. But when a man has been roughing it on short commons for a succession of days, until his appetite is wolfish and his strength and spirits begin to succumb, then he is apt to throw his soul into the stalk with a ravenous ardour which tends to defeat its own purpose. We doubt not that it was a real sorrow at the time, though he relates it in the retrospect lightly and humorously, when, after much severe exercise and several blank days, Lord Dunraven saw a bighorn he had tumbled over and counted for dead, totter on to its legs and carry its carcass away from his hunting-knife. The weather too was far from being all that could be desired, and the party suffered the more from the wet and exposure that their stock of stimulants was exhausted. Thus we have a description which sounds more picturesque than pleasant of one particular night when a straggling member of the party came nearly to an untimely end. The night was black as pitch; the rain descending in torrents; everything in camp was soaked, from the tent to the bedding and the clothes of the victims. His lordship, with Jack and Boteler as his aides-de-camp, stretched a wapiti skin from the branches by way of protection, and contrived to get up a kindly blaze. There sat the half-starving men, waiting anxiously for the arrival of the Doctor—Kingsley—who, as they fondly hoped, might bring them some venison. At length they heard a shot, followed by another and another, when they made up their minds that he was lost and was signalling for help. The men started off to bring him in, and Lord Dunraven and his dog were left watching the fire, and listening to the dismal plash of the rain and the melancholy howling of the wind through the pine boughs. We can believe him when he says that his watch was "very gruesome," and we admire and appreciate his candour when he confesses that he began to be "horribly afraid." By way of aggravation, too, his tobacco was wet, nor could he touch the last drops of their whisky, which he was keeping as a restorative for the missing man. And when poor Kingsley was at last brought in, pretty thoroughly exhausted, he had to content himself with the simple application of heat, there being neither food nor spirits to revive him, for some unlucky accident had upset the pannikin.

* *The Great Divide: Travels in the Upper Yellowstone in the Summer of 1874.* By the Earl of Dunraven. London: Chatto & Windus. 1876.

The moral of the story is that excursions of this kind should only be undertaken by men of proved strength of constitution. But to those who are blessed with robust health, the wonders to be seen in the Yellowstone region might compensate for a good deal of danger and hardship. The Upper Falls are formed by the sudden closing in of precipitous walls, where the compressed body of water, "rushing with such force through a narrow space, shoots clean out into the air and dashes down 140 feet." The effects below are somewhat remarkable, where the falling water, striking a slightly submerged ledge of rock, is thrown forward in a fan-like form over the dark surface of the deep pool below. "Above the Lower Fall also the waters are compressed and heaped up into a narrow channel, and the Yellowstone entering the gorge with the velocity acquired in its rapid descent from the upper shoot, and passing tumultuously through, hurls itself out bodily from the edge with a descent of 397 feet, forming a very grand cascade." But the sight that awaits the visitor to the Lower Geyser basin, if it cannot be described as beautiful, is decidedly more striking. The surface of the earth is honeycombed by violent volcanic forces, expelling mud and water in streams and spouts that assume every variety of form and volume. In some places there are an infinity of little jets shooting up through minute cracks and fissures, in others vast volumes of the boiling water fall back into steaming pools. Yet the element of beauty is not altogether wanting in detail, although the general effect is ghastly to repulsiveness. For these manifold springs, with their rims and their orifices, are variegated in endless shades of colouring, produced by the deposit in combination of iron, silica, and sulphur. From the point at which the party entered the Lower Geyser Basin to the spot where they encamped lower down the valley, their road lay along the banks of the Fire Hole River, appropriately named from its draining off the boiling fluid, which it carries down into the Madison. The water in its innumerable little tributaries was, for the most part, variegated as we have described; their banks were richly inlaid with patterns in mineral mosaic; while here and there, and scattered all over the valley, rose geysers of every size and shape, the pools and lakelets into which they played being elevated on mounds of their own formation. Some of these have evidently nearly exhausted their powers, after a long course of violent activity. Others are still vigorous, though irregular and spasmodic in their outbursts. But there are one or two which can always be relied upon to show themselves off to the best advantage; and the visitor need never be condemned, as in Iceland, to curb his curious impatience and dance attendance on their caprices. We may say that the cream of Lord Dunraven's narrative is to be found in the excellent chapters that deal with the phenomena in the Geyser Basin. But the book contains a variety of interesting information about the country, and the men and animals that are to be met with in it; and, when he is fairly warmed into admiration, he shows very considerable powers of impressive and vigorous description.

A GERMAN VIEW OF JUNIUS.*

IF the sole, or even the main, object of the essay before us had been to make one more attempt at solving the question of the authorship of the *Letters of Junius*, Professor Friedrich Brockhaus might have had to be congratulated on the boldness of his venture, but could under the circumstances have hardly hoped for conspicuous success. The tests which it is necessary to apply to the question are so many and so various, and the special literature which has accumulated around it is so voluminous, that it scarcely admits of being studied with completeness out of England. To take the test of handwriting alone, its application cannot nowadays be fairly discussed without a close examination of the Chabot-Twisleton quarto, and the mere size and general nature of that publication have necessarily prevented its wide circulation. And even on this question of handwriting, as will be remembered by "constant readers" of the *Times*, which on May 22nd, 1871, made Mr. Twisleton's book the occasion of a remarkably witty criticism, the scholarly dilettante and the indefatigable expert cannot fairly be said to have pronounced the last word. While, again, the entire question, whether solved or not, must always remain one of cumulative evidence, it is impossible for any one not resident in England to take note of the little additions which continue from time to time to crop up on one side or the other—as, for instance, the other day in the first volume of Lord E. Fitzmaurice's *Life of Lord Shelburne*. And of course it can only be very exceptionally, if at all, that the *personalia* of our political history in the latter half of the eighteenth century should be fully mastered by any but an Englishman. Accordingly, the question *Who was Junius?* has not to our knowledge ever been subjected to a really authoritative treatment abroad. M. Charles de Rémusat indeed, if we remember rightly, many years ago, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, lent the support of his remarkable familiarity with our historical and political literature to the odd theory ascribing to the Letters a divided authorship; and, to refer to a less responsible source of literary intelligence, the same or a not dissimilar view has inspired an ingenious production of one of the most skilful and popular of living German dramatists—Heinrich Laube. Professor Friedrich Brockhaus has, however, abstained from

any attempt, conscious or unconscious, at such paradoxes; he declares himself a Franciscan pure and simple, recites the general evidence in favour of this now so widely accepted view with clearness and force, does not vex himself or his readers by dwelling at any length on the doubts which have more recently been suggested against it, considers (on the authority of the *Quarterly Review*) that Mr. Chabot has permanently settled the point as to the handwriting, and is not troubled by the discrepancies which some critics have recognized between the opinions and the general mental calibre of Francis on the one hand, and the author of the Letters, whoever he was, on the other.

The value and interest of this essay for English readers are therefore not to be sought in that part of it which addresses itself to the question of the identity of Junius and Francis. Rumour has for some time asserted that it is the intention of an eminent legal authority in this country to charge the public on the whole of the evidence on the subject; and that will be the occasion for what Professor Brockhaus calls *die Gelehrten der Junius-Frage* once more to open the sluices of their knowledge and to pour forth the whole wealth of their conclusions, convictions, and conjectures. Till that time arrives, we are content to keep our own opinion a little in arrears of Lord Macaulay's famous declaration, that the evidence in favour of Francis is such as would be sufficient to convict a murderer—even though we have had the advantage of perusing the late Mr. Twisleton's quarto, and of deriving such aid as they supply from the lucubrations of the late Mr. Parkes. In a word, the balance of testimony seems to us strongly in favour of the Franciscans; but we would neither hang a man on such evidence nor—since the question is not one within the domain of the New Shakespeare Society—be ourselves prepared to die the death in support of our belief.

What, on the other hand, makes Professor Brockhaus's essay worthy of attention beyond the circle of hearers and readers to which it was primarily addressed is the admirable lucidity and force with which, in four successive sections, he has brought out the historical significance of the Letters, and the political as well as the ethical principles which they illustrate. These parts of the essay show the firm hand of the trained student of comparative politics, as well as the sound and sure judgment of a mind fortified by its command of the science of law. Professor Friedrich Brockhaus is the son of one of the most distinguished members of the now foremost German University, that of Leipzig; but, while his father ranks among the first of living Orientalists, and his brother, Professor Clemens Brockhaus, is already making for himself a name as an ecclesiastical historian and ecclesiologist, the youngest member of the academical branch of this well-known family has chosen for himself a different line of intellectual labour. We briefly noticed, a few years ago, his lucid, and in some respects novel, treatise on the Principle of Legitimacy in Politics, which discussed theories and conceptions of considerable legal interest as well as of obvious practical significance. His present essay is, if only from the circumstances of its origin as a popular lecture, less elaborate both in matter and in form; but it has the same firmness of texture and thoroughness of manner, and though its purpose is modest, it fulfils that purpose with scholarly completeness.

The exceptions we have here and there to take to Professor Brockhaus's views or conclusions may best be stated incidentally in a brief summary of the course of his argument. He shows what was the nature of the changes which already in the former half of the eighteenth century had taken place in the working of the English Constitution; how not only had the Crown (the symbol of the continuity of our political history) become the "monarchical firm of a republican business," but how that Parliament whose majority held the reality of power in its hands had itself all but entirely ceased actually to represent the counties and boroughs. He points out what exceptions remained to a system which had radically undermined freedom of election—he might also have pointed out that exceptions are to be noted, in the reigns of the first two Georges, to the *faînéant* character attributed to their royal authority in general. Practically, as he observes with truth, the English people long remained indifferent to the dependence of the House of Commons upon the aristocracy—a dependence established in defiance of the principles to which the House owed its origin—because the predominant Whig party fairly represented the views of the great majority of the nation. It was forgotten that the attempt might still be made to subject Parliament to a royal authority resting on very different conceptions of its proper character from those which in England alone had come to prevail, and to make the Cabinet a mere instrument of the royal will; and it was likewise forgotten that the House of Commons itself might some day be found in opposition to the wishes of the nation, whose control over it—of whatever kind or degree—had been so greatly weakened by the Septennial Act.

The attempt to make these dangers a reality was, as Professor Brockhaus says, reserved for King George III.; but it may be observed that the maxims he was taught by his mother and Lord Bute had been already preached to his more or less lamented father by Bolingbroke; and, in effect, if not in name, George III. sought to carry out what was of real significance in the conception of the Patriot King. The Whigs had broken up into factions, as the modern political phrase is; the Jacobites had become a merely sentimental party after Culloden; and the loyal Tories were without a competent leader. It seemed a propitious moment for the formation of a party prepared to second the ambition of the Crown, and out of various materials (not perhaps all quite so worthless as

* *Die Briefe des Junius*. Von Professor Dr. Friedrich Brockhaus. Leipzig. 1876.

Professor Brockhaus assumes) was formed the party, or faction, or clique of the King's Friends. But it was easier to form a party than to bring it into power, and easier to bring it into power than to maintain it there. Bute had supplanted Pitt; but Bute was overwhelmed by his unpopularity; the King was gratified by the successive overthrow of Grenville and of Rockingham; but the name of Pitt was still necessary in order to conjure a new Ministry into being. His Cabinet was little to his liking, and soon the Earl of Chatham left his colleagues to shift for themselves. The Duke of Grafton was now really as well as nominally at the head of affairs, supporting himself as best he could by the aid of the Duke of Bedford and his section of the Whigs. The elections had at last produced a majority with which the King might think himself able to govern as well as reign; and a Government was in power composed of King's Friends and of the least popular section of the disorganized Whig party. Quite apart, therefore, from the questions which soon arose, the situation was a critical one for the constitutional life of the country; but it is only just to remark that its difficulties were in part due to the conduct of Chatham, of which the determining principle at this time was certainly not the maxim that the King's Government must be carried on.

In the second section of his essay Professor Brockhaus describes with equal terseness the situation of the English press at a time when the tendencies of the Government in power were certain to call for its criticism. He shows with great clearness how the real insecurity of the press consisted partly in the obscurity surrounding the law of libel, with regard to which Lord Mansfield and the chief legal authorities of the day held that the question as to the libellous or non-libellous nature of a publication was one, not for the jury, but for the judge. He secondly shows that an even greater danger lay in the view of the privilege of Parliament taken by that body, and briefly explains the nature of the case of Wilkes, which gave rise to the first Letter of Junius. It attracted little attention; but the second, which comprised a general attack upon the Cabinet and a series of invectives against its members, at once made Junius famous. Sir William Draper furnished the materials for the first episode in the drama; then came the turn of higher game—the Duke of Grafton, the Duke of Bedford, Lord Mansfield—and, in that letter which made Burke's blood run cold in his veins as he read it, the King himself. The *Letters of Junius* belong to a class of literature which admirably lends itself to quotation; but we are surprised to find how much of their strength—and sometimes they may be called *merum acetum*, as Addison called Pope's poem *merum sal*—preserves itself in Ruge's German translation.

Into the more personal questions touched upon by Professor Brockhaus, or into the literary characteristics of Junius and the familiar comparison between his style and that of modern journalism, we cannot enter. The most interesting part of the book before us is, to our mind, its fourth section—on the political doctrines of Junius. It is here shown with great force—and doubtless the truth requires to be insisted upon towards a German public, whose acquaintance with the history of English political questions must necessarily have its gaps—that to regard Junius as a democratic revolutionist is an "enormous error." Far from seeking to tamper with a single institution, he defended the opinions he advanced by appealing to positive law and its rationality—not to comprehensive political theories, but to the actual evidence of history. He asked for nothing new; and if he reminded the King of the insecurity of his throne, it was merely that he demanded a return to constitutional principles older than the Hanoverian dynasty, itself only the creature of the law. Nowhere does he impugn the existence of the royal dignity itself, or quarrel with the measure of authority which the Constitution has left to the Crown. Nor does he attack the aristocracy as an institution, or direct his invectives against the aristocratic character of the national government. He nowhere, as Professor Brockhaus well puts it, "confounds the ideas of aristocracy and oligarchy"; it is the latter and its personal representatives which he combats. Even the actual working of the Parliamentary machine he subjects to no radical criticism; he is against the abolition of the existing system of boroughs; and the proposal he pressed upon Lord Camden in the last of his letters, for the substitution of triennial for septennial Parliaments, was not, historically speaking, an innovation. We pass by other topics on which "Junius" adhered to Conservative views in a narrower sense of the term. The changes in English political life which his advocacy largely contributed to establish were no new political theories and no constitutional innovations. Positively, he asserted the power of public opinion through its most adequate exponent, the anonymous press; negatively, he helped to bring about what Sir Philip Francis at all events lived to see, the abolition of the old view of the law of libel. The present state of that law possibly has its weak points; but, to whatever purpose it may be put, it can no longer be used as an instrument in the hands of irresponsible authority.

Professor Brockhaus's observations on the ethical character of the *Letters of Junius* are at once generous and temperate, but from the nature of the case they may here and there require modification. For ourselves, we confess that the question of the identity of "Junius" seems to us inseparably mixed up with the significance of much of his personal invective. But, leaving this aspect of the question aside, and judging him as we might judge of any public writer, we simply hold that the case is only one more illustration of the futility of the distinction sometimes drawn between the public and the private morality of a public man. Nobody but a pedant will pursue the same method in the conduct of his public as in

that of his private life, when the conditions under which he has to act or refrain from acting, to speak or be silent, to combine with or sever himself from others, are so totally different. But the principles remain the same. The unmeasured arrogance and the uncontrolled ferocity of Junius are vices in a public writer as they are in any other man, though in the case of the former there may be something to excuse and must be much to encourage them. His utter incapability of reconsidering a question or a character on which he has once made up his mind is not the mere exaggeration of force and consistency of principles or opinions; and his unscrupulousness in the choice of the particular means by which he seeks to convey his general impression to the public is not reconcilable with a nice sense of honour. The conduct of Junius towards the Duke of Bedford seems to us to be that of what in a different sphere of action is called by an ugly name—the conduct of a bully. We are not speaking of mere offences against good taste or even good feeling; for the one is a varying sentiment, and even the other may sometimes seem to be all but necessarily submerged in the torrent of indignation. But malignity springs from a tainted source; and of this the writer of the *Letters of Junius* cannot be acquitted. We are not, we may say in conclusion, of the opinion of those who think that their literary merits have been overrated; but their historical significance must always remain their first title to immortality, and to this we are glad that Professor Brockhaus has in so competent a manner directed the attention of his countrymen. Such endeavours, whether made in Germany or in England, to bring home to the public of the one nation something of the historical life of the other, are in no case likely to remain altogether labour lost.

THE ONE FAIR WOMAN.*

THERE were people who said of Mr. Joaquin Miller's *Life Among the Modocs*, which was supposed to be a narrative of facts, that it was a brilliant piece of fiction, and we confess to having held this opinion for some time. But, having made acquaintance with *The One Fair Woman*, which professes to be a romance, we are disposed to think that *Life Among the Modocs* must have been strictly true. The author's present work is remarkable for an utter want of invention, of plausibility, of construction, of coherence, and, in short, of every quality that is desirable in a novel. It is a book the reading of which makes one profoundly wretched. There is in it just enough cleverness and interest to irritate your attention, and make you hope after each page of skumble-skamble stuff that there will be something really good in the next. You go on struggling through the chaos which Mr. Miller has put before you, trusting that you may at length come upon some glimmering of a plot, some flash of nature; but you go on in vain. The effect of the novel is like that of a bad dream in which you are constantly pursuing some object which as constantly evades you.

The hero of *The One Fair Woman* is a young painter with the singular name of Alrho Murietta, who, "boy as he was, was scared all over by battle"; whose manner was "gentle, engaging, almost childlike"; who had a singular face, "half-hidden in blonde and abundant hair that hung to the shoulders"; a face "that men would paint, would see without knowing it"—whatever that may mean. And still we are told that this face "was not beautiful, not by any manner of means." Another peculiarity about him was that, "though he was the soul of virtue, his heart lay broken in bits and scattered like clay all over the world where he had wandered." Why his being the soul of virtue should be at variance with his heart being broken, or in what form clay is generally found scattered all over the world, is not stated. The most remarkable assertion made by the author about this wonderful young man is that, "with all that"—that is, with all the bits of his heart which were scattered—"he had never yet met the one great woman of his life, the one whom somehow he felt was standing somewhere." We are left to infer that when he did meet the one woman whom he was standing somehow somewhere he would pick up the scattered bits of his heart from various parts of the world and lay them at her feet. Of course he did meet this one woman with great appropriateness, "face to face in of (*sic*) the highest circles in the world." When he met her his first action was to run away, and after that his next impulse was to take a man who knew her by the collar, and turn his face to the wall in a dark place, and then make him say who she was. "This," observes the author, "I should say, is love—love deep, self-denying, yet uncontrolled." We may be thankful that this is not a general opinion. He was saved the trouble of assaulting this man, however, by the man telling him of his own accord who the one fair woman was. In the course of the same conversation the man informed the painter that he was supposed to be insane; and apparently there was some ground for the supposition, as, on receiving this intelligence, Murietta went straight off to the India Docks, and embarked on a ship starting for Genoa, where he arrived "without even a hat-box in the shape of luggage. Happy man!" says Mr. Joaquin Miller. We should be inclined to substitute another epithet.

At Genoa Murietta asks the Consul to show him some miserable people, and the Consul takes him to the public drive, which is full of carriages. This gives the author an opportunity for some moral

* *The One Fair Woman*. By Joaquin Miller. 3 vols. London: Chapman & Hall. 1876.

reflections on the drive in Hyde Park, of which the grammar and sentiment are alike striking:—

He sits as if he was bolstered up in bed, and his physician was feeling his pulse. He is so stiff that you might imagine him chiselled from some sort of very ugly stone, hat and all. You had almost as well expect to see a Grenadier guardsman lift his bearskin cap as to see an Englishman's hat move from his head, unless a royal personage appears, while he takes this mournful round in the great ride of the kingdom. The marble head of Julius Cesar is about as likely to fall from the shoulders of the bust in the British Museum, as is the head of an Englishman to turn to the right or the left as he sits there, holding his hands so stiffly, looking so stern, so pitiful, as if he was expecting every moment to hear that melancholy physician say that he must die to-morrow.

The poor stand on the outside, fifty deep, and look on in silence at this pageant of black solemnity.

He goes on to say that the people driving all wear "the same doleful doomed expression—the indescribable expression of the damned." This reminds one of the celebrated party in Peter Bell, who were (we quote from memory) "some drinking punch, some drinking tea, and by their faces you could see all silent and all damned." There is also an anecdote of a child looking at this drive who "tiptoed up," a strange action which Mr. Miller's characters constantly perform, and said to her mamma, "O mamma! see! what a pretty, pretty funeral!" From this the author takes us back to Genoa, and finishes a chapter with an incident which, besides being told in his usual bad grammar, is marked with a slight touch of profanity. The painter's first adventure in Genoa is to meet with a lady who is spoken of throughout as "the pink countess," who is supposed to be mad, and who goes about with a weak husband and a big admiral, in describing whom Mr. Miller has, as he has in other cases, feebly imitated Dickens's trick of labelling a personage, so to speak, with a catch-word. The big admiral never speaks to any one without announcing that he is a rough but honest sailor, who carries his heart in his hand. Another character, an American missionary, is constantly described as a tombstone, and also, with strange confusion of metaphor, as an Indian bow just ready to shoot an arrow, which is represented by his umbrella. Thus, when the missionary straightens his back we are told that "the bow slowly relaxed, for the tombstone felt that it had not this time made a centre shot." That such nonsense as this should be written by an author who has done some good work is almost incredible. Here, to make the tale complete, is another miserable attempt at reproducing Dickens's manner. It is necessary to state that from the context the passage seems intended for a description of waiters taking away breakfast:—

The curtain was raised, or at least two actors entered here, bowing gracefully, dressed in splendid stage array, and bearing aloft a tray in each right hand, as they glided sideways towards the table. The china and the teaspoons met in convention on these trays, talked for a moment in an undertone; the stray bits of bread gathered themselves together as these graceful actors moved their hands over the linen. The trays lifted up light as balances: the graceful actors bowed and edging sideways were gone, and the curtain seemed to come down and the piece was over.

There would seem to be some mystery connected with "the pink countess" of whom we have spoken; but we confess that we have been entirely unable to discover what it is. She gives Murietta, when they meet at breakfast, a description of Nervi. He replies, "I will go to Nervi, lady" (this, we may observe, is his usual form of address), and is in the middle of an enthusiastic speech when the big admiral comes in. Upon this the pink countess trembles, and the artist, with needless excitement, says, "Lady, do not fear; do not move unless you desire. No hand shall—no tongue shall insult you here." The countess, however, goes away with her husband and the admiral, and the painter is left in a state of rage and perplexity with which it is difficult to sympathize. This kind of thing goes on all through the book; the countess is perpetually going to make some revelation to Murietta, and Murietta is constantly at her heels; but what it all means is known only to Mr. Joaquin Miller. Some time after this the painter sees the one fair woman, who luckily is not the pink countess, on the side of Vesuvius, and manages to drop some roses on the road she must follow, after which he repeats with imbecile iteration through five or six pages, "I scattered roses in her path," and then makes up his mind to go to Barcelona in order to get killed. But there are certain difficulties in the way of getting there which seem to be introduced as an excuse for a chapter called "An Innocent Duel," which is filled with a painfully—might even say disgustingly—minute description of Murietta and the Minister's Secretary blowing the smoke of cigarettes through their nostrils. Murietta does not go to Barcelona; he takes instead an obscure lodging in Rome, kept by four courtesesses in their own right, and their father, who is a manufacturer of antiquities. Here he paints a picture of the one fair woman and is attacked with Roman fever, upon which a ludicrously impossible scene takes place between him and a doctor, who, accompanied by a prince, asks an exorbitant fee, and is made to reduce it by Murietta, in his sick bed, pointing at him "a little bull-dog of a pistol" which "stuck its nose out, thrust it forward, way out in the face of the two men as if it was just about to bark, as if it was positively anxious to bark. It seemed as if it could hardly keep from barking right out." This brings Mr. Miller's first volume to a close. The most remarkable passage in the second perhaps is this, which, on account of its touching modesty, we cannot refrain from quoting:—

It seems to me as if a man could stand before this immortal creation and repeat literally the lines of Lord Byron on the Dying Gladiator, although he had never heard or read the lines in his life.

Once a poet stood before this figure and looked at it long and earnestly.

At last he said with a sigh, "Byron has done me more wrong than all the world together; he has ruined my future, for if he had not written those poems of his, I should have written them, and it seems to me I should have written them, and written them just as he wrote them."

Mr. Joaquin Miller did at one time show that he could write poetry, which we do not think, however, was equal to Lord Byron's. It is a pity that he has abandoned poetry in order to write such a jumble of nonsense as *The One Fair Woman*. In his second volume there appears a certain Miss Mollie Wopsep, from California, who is intended to be a fresh and amusing character, and who is really one of the most tiresome and disagreeable persons ever invented. She is courted by the wicked prince who visited Murietta with the doctor, and there is a mysterious plot among the many mysterious villains of the book to assassinate the painter. Speaking of this to the pink countess, he says, "You are a honest (sic), true little lady. You will say to the Count that Murietta knows what he is waiting for." Subsequently he again meets the one fair woman, who is gifted with "a quiet Latin laugh," whatever that may be. Before describing this meeting the author observes that "it is very hard indeed to write a romance altogether out of facts," and he goes on to say, "these real people are hard to handle. They are not exactly what you want. They sometimes persist in being intolerably dull and uninteresting." This is only a half-truth; Mr. Joaquin Miller's people are not at all what we want, and they always persist in being intolerably dull and uninteresting.

It is needless to follow Murietta any further through the mazes of this extraordinarily foolish book. There are here and there good bits of description to be found, and such quaint sayings as that "Naples is the poorest place for something to turn up in outside of a tomb"; but they occur at very rare intervals in a mass of imbecility. There is also one passage in the book which it is astonishing to find written and printed in volumes that may be supposed to make their way through circulating libraries to decent readers.

LOTHIAN'S DANTE AND BEATRICE.*

ONE thing was omitted by Dante in the *Vita Nuova*, probably as being superfluous. He wrote in it no imprecation of the wrath of the Muses, or of the glorified Beatrice herself, on any one who in time to come should lay rash hands on the mysteries of which Dante himself thought fit to show the world so much and no more. Any such attempt would seem beforehand most unlikely to be made, for this is not one of the subjects that lie in the common beat of the mercenary and superficial literature which sticks at nothing for want of knowledge; nor is it a promising one for that kind of treatment; and in the case of those to whom competent knowledge is not wanting, one would naturally expect, as the fruit or accompaniment of the knowledge itself, a measure of taste and discretion sufficient to prevent the design from being entertained. And in truth, so far as we know, Dante's Beatrice has had the good fortune to be left in peace for all but six centuries, save for those ingenious persons who have done their best to reduce her to an allegory of Philosophy or the Holy Roman Empire. It was reserved for Mr. Roxburghe Lothian to fall at length into this open trap through unripe knowledge and indiscreet zeal. It would be difficult to find a task more unfit and ungracious in its own nature than composing an historical novel of the regular type on the theme of the *Vita Nuova*. In the first place, it is a canon generally observed by the masters of this kind of writing, though not without exceptions, not to choose the hero of their story from among the greatest names of the day, but rather to take a less known or fictitious person, whose life may be freely handled by the romancer, and interwoven with the historic interests of the time in whatever manner may be most convenient. To take only one example from another modern novel whose scene is laid in Florence, George Eliot knew much better than to make Savonarola the hero of *Romola*. The fiction should be set off as a distinct set of images on the historical field, not confused in it. Historical romance may be not only excellent as art, but even a real help to history. Romantic history is seldom, if ever, tolerable. This is one almost fatal objection to Mr. Roxburghe Lothian's undertaking. Another, and a yet graver one, is that his book is from beginning to end an inexcusable violation of the whole spirit of the *Vita Nuova*. So far as Dante's own witness goes, we know of the love of Dante for Beatrice, and that only. Mr. Roxburghe Lothian has made up a story of the loves of Dante and Beatrice, and no doubt it would have been more difficult to make it otherwise; still this is a wholly different thing, and wholly unwarranted. Notwithstanding this author's speculative inferences from the later works, there is nothing whatever to show that Dante's love was returned, or that he ever had any definite hope that it would be returned. All that he tells us is consistent with Beatrice never having spoken to him in her life; and though he gives us little ground for positive inferences, that little is against the supposition that there was anything like intimacy between them. The celebrated passage where he describes the blissful effects of his lady's passing salutation would be little better than frigid hyperbole if we were to take it as the language of one who not only exchanged distant greetings but walked and talked with her. Again, he says in plain words that she joined the other ladies in mocking his discomfiture when he saw her at the wedding feast. This is pretty decisive against her being other-

* *Dante and Beatrice, from 1282 to 1290: a Romance.* By Roxburghe Lothian. 2 vols. London: Henry S. King & Co. 1876.

wise than indifferent to him at the time; and if the conjecture be right that this wedding was no other than Beatrice's own, the case is even stronger. This conjecture is tacitly adopted by Mr. Lothian, who of course has to suppress the incident of the mockery, notwithstanding the prominence given to it by Dante. But even if we were quite free to assume, in the face of these indications, that other things happened than are told or suggested in the book, it is at all events a fact that, if any such things there were, Dante has studiously forbore to report them. And the man must have a singular confidence in his own artistic judgment who takes upon himself to speak at large where Dante was deliberately silent. This indeed is of greater importance than the conclusion we may come to on the question of actual fact. It is not that a writer of historical fiction is bound by facts as such, but that he is bound for artistic reasons not to depart extravagantly from the outlines given him by his materials. He must not be paradoxical or controversial. It may sometimes be an artistic fault even to correct an admitted vulgar error. Now in this case argument is needless to show that the peculiar charm of the *Vita Nuova* consists in no small measure in the distant and almost unearthly character of the poet's devotion, worshipping his lady as he does afar off, with scarce any reward or hope, and with a love which at the last was to blend into the divine intellectual love of the philosopher and theologian rather than be supplanted by it. Such is the picture presented to us. Whether the manner of it is due, as we incline to think, to its substantial truth, or rather to the poet's designed reticence, may be left an open question. And it also seems to us that, as a matter of artistic feeling and reverence, any one who takes up the subject after Dante should hold himself bound not to depart from the general tone in which Dante handled it. Of course a novel-writer is free, in a certain sense, to make Beatrice desperately in love with Dante, and to give us all the usual apparatus of proud parents, duennas, contrived and casual meetings, speeches, protestations, despairs, and farewells as Mr. Lothian has done; but he is almost or quite as free, in the same sense, to make Beatrice marry Dante and live happily ever after—perhaps in Egypt, after the example of Helen, leaving a phantom Dante to be exiled and write the *Divina Commedia*.

For these reasons we are compelled to disapprove of the whole plan and purpose of Mr. Roxburgh's Lothian's romance. In our eyes it is unhappily so misconceived that there is little profit in dwelling on the details of it either for praise or for blame. From one reproach at least the author is free. He cannot be charged with ignorance; on the contrary, he seems to have been very diligent and sufficiently exact in gathering information. He is apt, indeed, to be too manifestly well informed; for several of his chapters are overloaded with antiquarian descriptions, digressions, and references, which are all the more out of place that a proper place for such matter is actually provided in a set of notes at the end. Here, again, he might have taken a lesson from George Eliot, whose knowledge is always full and exact, but never obtrusive. He is at times loose in his manner of citing authorities, and allows himself some rather wild talk about Freemasonry; and he exceeds the bounds of likelihood in the knowledge of Greek literature and foreign learning which he ascribes to Dante and his contemporaries. Aristophanes and Euripides can hardly have been frequent in the mouths of Tuscan abbots and chaplains at that time; and we doubt whether Dante would have readily called to mind in a moment of critical emotion the observances of Brahmins and Buddhists, if indeed he had any but the vaguest knowledge that such people existed. And one is certainly surprised to find Dante pouring out his indignation in several pages of essentially Protestant soliloquy, supported in a note by reference to various passages in the *Commedia*, which only denounce the abuses of the temporal power of Popes and other princes. But Mr. Lothian, acting on the slight and obscure hints that have come down to us of Dante having been at some time or other accused of heresy, has worked up a full and startling under-plot of secret correspondence, wicked Franciscans, inquisitors, and what not. He entangles Beatrice likewise in these affairs, and represents her as dying for love of Dante only just in time to escape the Holy Office. All this, however, is matter of discretion. We cannot say that any of it is impossible; though, as to the *Credo* of Dante, when Mr. Lothian says in his notes, justly enough, that a verification of the merest elements of the faith could not well have satisfied the Church at any later time of Dante's life, one is tempted to suggest that it was not very likely to be accepted as a justification even from a young man if the charge against him was, as Mr. Lothian puts it, that he knew too much. The whole invention seems to us, we confess, forced and unpleasant; but there may be those who think otherwise. We are more gravely surprised when we find that Mr. Lothian is not content with introducing translations of two or three of Dante's poems, but has no hesitation in composing new ones for him, and in particular some despairing stanzas which Dante sends to Beatrice on her wedding-day. The effect of the original verses, whatever merit they might have if they professed only to be the author's own, is naturally disappointing; and we think he would have done as well to be content with Mr. Rossetti's English for the translations. On the whole, we can only part in sorrow from a record of labour well intended and well furnished with the proper means, but applied in a mistaken direction. The materials of which Mr. Roxburgh's Lothian has made an unsatisfactory novel might have been worked up into a respectable historical essay.

DAVILLIER'S LIFE OF FORTUNY.*

FORTUNY, who suddenly appeared and disappeared on the horizon of our contemporary art, presents so startling a phenomenon in the history of painting, that this Life, with correspondence and added illustrations from the hand of an intimate friend, will be read with something more than curiosity. We do not say that the enigma of the eccentric and assailing art which excited astonishment amounting almost to dismay in Madrid, Paris, Rome, and London is now actually solved. Still, when we are here once more reminded of Fortuny's nationality in common with Goya, the Hogarth of Spain, of his family relationship with Señor Madrazo, perhaps the greatest necromancer on canvas in Europe, of the encouragement he received from that most brilliant and blatant of French art critics, M. Théophile Gautier, of his alliance or sympathy with the archfiend of caricature, Gavarni, with the withering cynic, M. Gérôme, and with the microscopist in manipulation, M. Meissonnier, it cannot be very difficult to divine whence the devilry of Fortuny came. History scarcely affords a parallel to this collective manifestation, which we will not dignify as a galaxy of talent, but must rather call the perversion of genius. Neither will we say that this is an art stimulated by revolution, backed by barricades, or fed on massacres, for such in some measure was the dramatic art of Géricault, Delacroix, Decamps, and even of Delaroche. But the inspiration of Fortuny and his fellows was taken from the frivolity of salons, the frippery of fashion, the finery of milliners' shops. His gaily dressed figures are little more than painted marionettes; they have about as much of humanity within them as a collection of clothes-horses. As for the sentiment or dialogue, it is that of daggers, stratagems, and intrigues; there is nothing here more serious than a sneer; the laughter is without joy, and the tears are those which crocodiles are supposed to shed. And yet it must be confessed that the manner after its kind is supremely clever.

The life of the artist is not quite what might have been expected from the somewhat feverish and flashy character of his pictures. Fortuny, born to poverty, was tried in the school of adversity; he lived severely as a Spartan, and won his way by hard, steady work. His first experiences in art came when, as a boy, he assisted his grandfather—a puppet showman—in the painting of wax figures which were carried about in a cabinet as a sight for the villagers in his native district of Tarragona. And his biographer relates that when in London, at Mme. Tussaud's Exhibition, as recently as last year, Fortuny, tapping him on the shoulder, said laughingly, "And I also in my time have painted such figures as these." The young artist's first independent success was in the way of costume paintings of Spanish peasants; later on, he rushed for a while into religious subjects, composing, after the Peninsular custom of the olden times, Immaculate Conceptions, the Madonna going up to Heaven, and such like. But this sacred occupation is to be accounted only as a slight episode in the drama of a life which, opening as we have seen with wax puppets, found its fruition in "Les Charmeurs de Serpents," "Le Marchand de Tapis," "La Sieste," and "La Plage de Portici."

Fortuny soon left religious art, and found his true vocation in the line of Southern and Oriental *genre* painting on the breaking out of the war between Spain and Morocco. Unlike another famous though involuntary visitant to the African coast centuries before—the notorious Fra Filippo Lippi—he forsook Madonnas and saints for the rest of his life. But on the threshold of his voyage Fortuny found himself met by a difficulty not unfrequent in his too short career; poverty was the first, as ambition became the last, infirmity of his noble mind. When sent as a prodigy to Rome, being without money, funds had to be provided; afterwards he painted a great picture, but the materials were first paid for by others. In Morocco he endured all sorts of privations; he suffered from hunger, he slept on the bare ground, and, brave as a lion and wishing to know what a battle was like, he advanced so near to the scene of action as barely to escape being shot down. "Ah," said a soldier by his side, "that ball was meant for the artist." On another occasion he was taken prisoner by the Moors, who fortunately let him off on the ingenious plea of a friend that he was English:—"Oh, yes. *Yo Inglés!*" The Spaniards for once gained a brilliant victory, and Fortuny had a fine opportunity on the battle-field of making studies among the dead and the wounded. The horrors, however, proved a little too much even for a disciple reared in the national school of bull-fights. During a sojourn of two months and a half in Morocco he made a great quantity of drawings, both in oils and water colours, of Arab soldiers, Catalan volunteers, Jews, peasants, horses, landscapes, historic monuments, and domestic interiors. He must have had a ready and rapid hand to get through so much in so short a time. The fruits of the journey were received with rapture by his friends in Spain, who, under a sense of the honour conferred by such talent upon the nation, sent him again to Morocco to renew his impressions and gain further materials. These journeys, we cannot doubt, coloured the imagination of the painter. Nowhere else could he find such a combination of majestic pride and abject poverty, such picturesque compounds of finery and of filth. His art became little more than decorative; sunlight, and especially scintillating colour, were its highest attributes. The artist's mode

* *Fortuny: sa Vie, son Œuvre, sa Correspondance.* Avec cinq dessins inédits en fac-simile et deux eaux-fortes originales. Par le Baron Davillier. A Paris: chez Auguste Aubry Éditeur-Libraire de la Société des Bibliophiles français. 1875.

of life, partly from necessity, but still more from choice, was Bohemian; his art too was expressly Bohemian; even when approaching historic subjects, it seldom rose above anything more momentous than some minor incident which in ante-rooms or on back stairs might bring ruin or ridicule on a house or a nation. The most brilliant of manipulation and the richest of costume can scarcely redeem ideas which do not escape frivolity.

London, the great mart of the world, has naturally found an auction-room for Fortuny. It is easy to understand that works rapidly rising to speculative prices have offered unaccustomed attractions to the class whose profits lie in alternate transactions with needy artists and rich connoisseurs. For at least five years past pictures by Fortuny have been familiar to London dealers as the best and latest means of bringing the purchasing public up to that sensation pitch at which pockets are opened freely. But the speculators know themselves to be safe on a rising market, and when the sale came on in Paris of the painter's remainders, the prices realized proved far in excess of what his heirs could have hoped for. The unfinished works fetched upwards of 16,000*l.* A well-known admirer bid up to 98,800 francs for the "Beach of Portici," at which sum it was knocked down to him. We also learn that microscopically small and very incomplete studies went at prices varying from 3,000 to 7,000 francs a piece. A mere sketch of a Spanish Hidalgo, supposed to be of the time of Charles V., measuring only four and a half by two inches, sold for 4,100 francs; and the "Madrid Procession caught in the Rain" was bought by Messrs. Goupil for 20,000 francs. Such is the height to which folly may fly.

The success of Fortuny was a marvel even to himself. He could not understand how his pictures fetched such amazing prices. Strange to say, his own country is almost denuded of them, because Spaniards, being of late years stricken with adversity, have not been able to resist the temptation of realizing exorbitant profits on sales. But Fortuny, to his credit, does not appear to have been quite content in the midst of his prosperity. He wished to extricate himself from the commercial, social, and other penalties incident on popularity. He desired to raise his too decorative art into a higher and more sober sphere. The following extract from a letter from Rome to his biographer, dated as recently as April of last year, reveals the conflict between misgiving and aspiration which so often proves the torment of sensitive genius:—

Je vous dirai, pour changer, que je continue à travailler; mais, en vérité, je commence déjà à être un peu fatigué (moralement) du genre d'art et des tableaux que le succès m'a imposés, et qui (entre nous) ne sont pas l'expression véritable de mon genre de talent. Avec la grâce de Dieu, et dans l'espoir que le résultat de mes derniers tableaux sera favorable, je pense me reposer un peu. . . . Je fais tout mon possible pour aller passer quelques jours à Paris; et je voudrais aussi aller à Londres pour voir les musées et recueillir des documents pour mes tableaux.

We have often heard stories as to Fortuny's sumptuous studio in Rome. Connoisseurs, and what is worse, the horde of vagrant English and Americans who make Rome a kind of Italian Brighton, went to his studio as to a show. The artist had about him a sort of romance which the ladies, according to their wont, coloured up far beyond the pitch of sober truth. He assumed at the outset, as we have said, a Spartan austerity, with the cold ground for a bed, and a crust or at most a hard-boiled egg for a dinner. But when prosperity suddenly overtook him he became a Sybarite. Once the recipient of charity, he grew, as a surprise to himself, into the patron. Tastes at first rude and wholly without the means of culture or indulgence were soon polished up, at the pleasant incentive of money reward, to the pitch of tapestries, enamels, and ceramics—the acknowledged infirmities of our successful London Academicians, especially our portrait-painters. Such frailties scarcely need apology. Fortuny, once a Stoic, glided without much difficulty into an Epicurean, and, like other artists in Paris, Berlin, Vienna, and London, he naturally made his studio the echo of himself. Things of beauty, with all appliances ministering to sense, came as fitting surroundings to his pictures. It must be added that the best ornament to the studio was his own wife, the daughter of Señor Madrazo, to whom we owed thanks in years past for politeness as Director of the Madrid Picture Gallery. The studio receives less than justice from Baron Davillier in the following extract:—

Son vaste atelier, où il avait disposé avec un goût exquis ses splendides étoffes, ses faïences au relief d'or, ses armes anciennes et mille autres objets curieux, était une véritable merveille de décoration, et avait pris rang parmi les curiosités de Rome, trop souvent même il lui attirait des visites importunes.

Fortuny died of Italian fever at the comparatively early age of thirty-six. His friend and partial biographer naturally pleads that he was struck down just at the moment when new and great developments of his talent were imminent. This we do not believe; as the tree grows, so it falls. Fortuny never laid a sure foundation in the study of the human figure, without which his art was essentially poor and trivial. Fortuny's end was not as a flame flickering in the socket; it might rather be likened to a flash in the pan. The moral seems to be that when the art cannot live the artist must die. To this obituary of Fortuny must be added the deaths of his friends—MM. Zamacois, Regnault, and Giraud. Early death is said to come as a gift from the gods, but artists who may wish to live long will do well to take warning from Fortuny; a frivolous and superficial art is short—that which lives lies less on the surface.

FROST'S LIVES OF THE CONJURORS.*

THERE is an air of freshness about the subject of this book which seems to promise a journey into hitherto untrodden regions of biography—regions which may fairly be expected to abound with strange character and novel incident. But the promise of the title-page is by no means borne out by the work itself. We have barely been introduced to one of the heroes of the magic wand, and begun to feel a dawning interest in his character and fortunes, when, presto!—the scene changes. The hero of the moment is disposed of in half-a-dozen lines, and another takes his place, to be dealt with in an equally summary manner. The reader's prevailing sensation is that of being led into a succession of literary *culs-de-sac*, and of perpetually making fresh starts, only to find "no thoroughfare" in another direction.

Mr. Frost begins with the magicians who contended with Moses before Pharaoh. This is a very legitimate starting-point, though we cannot say that much information is afforded us concerning the "Lives" of the wonder-workers in question; but the reason given by Mr. Frost for going back so far is at least original. He tells us:—

Modern conjuring receives so much illustration and elucidation from the similar exhibitions of antiquity and the middle ages, that a relation of the lives and feats of conjurors, commencing with Neve, would have not only been as imperfect a record as was presented by Godwin, but have been deficient of the interest which is imparted to the subject by the light thrown upon the marvels exhibited by conjurors of our own day by the knowledge of those performed by the magicians of the ancient and mediæval worlds.

We have carefully examined this remarkable sentence, which reads like an extract from one of the *amphigouris*, or burlesque addresses, in which Comte and other conjurors of fifty years ago delighted to indulge. If it means anything at all, it must mean that the performances of Pharaoh's magicians, the Witch of Endor, and Simon Magus, all of whom are discussed in due course in this book, will be found useful in throwing light on the modern miracles performed by Dr. Lynn, Messrs. Maskelyne and Cooke, and their brethren of the present day. We doubt whether such a curious piece of inverted logic was ever before propounded. Mr. Frost would have his readers judge of the seen by the unseen, of the known by the unknown. We pass over the unconscious humour of looking at trade secrets, to be bought with a price, as problems to be approached in a spirit of scientific inquiry; but surely it is a most unheard-of way of conducting such an inquiry to seek the explanation of facts actually before us in other facts of which we have only a vague tradition. We fancy that most persons witnessing a magical entertainment would find their enjoyment marred rather than increased by discovering the secrets of the tricks which have bewildered them; but we are certain that any inquiring spirit, eager to solve the mystery of some clever illusion, would not seek for "illustration" or "elucidation" in the signs and wonders of the magicians of the Old Testament or in the mythical achievements of Albertus Magnus or Cornelius Agrippa.

The first five chapters of the book deal with the dark ages of the magic art, when conjurors were wont to profess direct dealings with the Devil, and thereby gained much profit and respect, subject to the slight drawback that they were occasionally burnt. During this period, and indeed down to the beginning of the eighteenth century, the records of conjurors and conjuring are more or less mythical. From about 1700, however, and beginning with Fawkes, Pinchbeck, and Yeates, the conjurors of old Bartholomew Fair, our information becomes more trustworthy. Next in order, and better known to fame, come Jonas, Comus, and Breslaw, the last-named retiring from the stage about 1784, and shortly afterwards publishing his *Last Legacy*, one of the earliest treatises on the art. At about the same date the celebrated Pinetti made his first appearance before a London audience. In connexion with this performer Mr. Frost makes a brief reference to the *Magie blanche dévoilée* of Decremps, which was professedly an explanation of Pinetti's principal feats, and is said to have been provoked by a direct challenge from Pinetti himself. But to this work, which, full of errors as it is, formed for fifty years the basis of magical literature, Mr. Frost only devotes a single page; and to its successors by the same author, the *Supplément à la magie blanche*, the *Testament de Jérôme Sharp*, the *Codicille de Jérôme Sharp*, and the *Petites Aventures de Jérôme Sharp*, he makes no allusion whatever. Neither does he relate, as he surely would have done had it been within his knowledge, the curious and characteristic revenge taken by Pinetti on the man who had thus sought to expose his secrets. We give the incident in the words of Robert-Houdin:—

Voici comment Pinetti se vengea de la publication de cet ouvrage; dans une de ses séances il se plaignit qu'un ignorant, un imposteur prétendait, dans la seule intention de lui nuire, dévoiler des secrets au-dessus de son intelligence. A ces mots un homme mal couvert et de mauvaise mine se leva du milieu de l'assemblée, et en termes grossiers apostrophe Pinetti, et offre de prouver que les démonstrations qu'il a données sont exactes. Le public, mécontent de voir troubler une séance où il s'amuse beaucoup, hue le pauvre diable et allait peut-être lui faire un mauvais parti, lorsque Pinetti s'interpose et met doucement l'homme à la porte, en lui glissant dans la main quelques écus. Cet homme était un compère. Le lendemain Decremps voulut démentir le public, mais il ne put y réussir.

* *The Lives of the Conjurors*. By Thomas Frost, Author of "Circus Life and Circus Celebrities," "The Old Showmen and the Old London Fairs," &c. London: Tinsley Brothers. 1876.

The idea of manufacturing a dummy adversary, and through him striking at the real one, is one which could only have emanated from a conjuror's brain, and recalls the magical assassinations supposed to have been practised in the middle ages, wherein, by sticking pins in a waxen effigy, corresponding wounds were inflicted on the living prototype. A better-known incident of the same character, the ingenious and temporarily successful plot of Pinetti to ruin his rival Torrini, is related by Mr. Frost.

From Pinetti we proceed onwards, at the rate of about a dozen conjurors to a chapter, to the time of Jacobs and Anderson. Mr. Frost appears to be a disciple of the Tupperian philosophy, and to believe that

The epitome of common lives is seen in the common epitaph—
Born on such a day, and died on such another, with an interval
of threescore years.

If he has succeeded in telling us where and when a given performer was born, at what date he gave his first performance, and what were his customary prices of admission, he conceives that he has given us a pretty complete biography. Comte, unquestionably the greatest performer of the last generation, is disposed of in a couple of pages. The elder Hermann, also a star of the first magnitude, occupies barely a dozen lines, while the younger Hermann, still better known to the present generation of English sightseers, having performed in this country for a great part of the years 1870-1871, is omitted altogether. Anderson, the Wizard of the North, and Robert-Houdin are highly honoured, each having a whole chapter to himself, these being almost the only instances in which anything like real biography is attempted. The space allotted to Anderson is, indeed, wholly disproportionate to his artistic merits. He was a good man of business, with a keen appreciation of the magic of advertising, and a thorough mastery of the art of puff. He was daring in his speculations, and, thanks to his business talents, having considerable capital at his command, never lost the chance of a telling effect on account of the cumbrousness or costliness of the necessary stage appliances. But as a conjuror he had little or no original genius, and with all his pretension left no mark whatever upon the magic art. Far otherwise was it with his contemporary Robert-Houdin. Trained to the prosaic occupation of a watchmaker, but with an inborn passion for natural magic which tinged every thought and action of his life, he spent the first years of his life in devising and constructing magical automata; and it was not until he was forty years old that he yielded completely to his vocation and came before the public as a conjuror. But from his very first performance he determined not to be fettered by tradition, but to introduce a new era in the art. The conjurors of his day were accustomed to attire themselves in flowing robes and eccentric headgear. Robert-Houdin discarded these, and appeared in ordinary evening dress. His contemporaries furnished their stages with heavy draped tables, in which an assistant might be, and occasionally was, concealed. Houdin suppressed what he sarcastically termed the *boîte à compère*, and decked his stage with light and elegant accessories offering no such possibility of concealment. An adept in natural as well as mechanical science, he pressed the resources of electricity into his service, and by means of this subtle power was able to induce inert matter with seeming vitality and intelligence. With Anderson little or nothing was original; with Houdin everything was original. Mr. Frost shows no appreciation whatever of the marked contrast between the two men, neither does he make any mention of Houdin's numerous contributions to mechanical and electrical science. Of one of these, the *répartiteur électrique*, a novel and ingenious combination of levers, a scientific writer in the *Cosmos* (vol. 7, p. 330), speaks as follows:—

An point de vue de la mécanique, c'est un organe entièrement nouveau, qui sera bientôt appliqué de mille manières différentes, à mille usages, et qui rendra d'innombrables services. An point de vue de la physique et des applications de l'électricité, c'est une découverte immense. M. Robert-Houdin, dont les forces sont centuplées par son *répartiteur*, est seul aujourd'hui en mesure de résoudre le plus grand des problèmes à l'ordre du jour, de réaliser enfin le moteur électrique, etc.

Mr. Frost is in error in stating that the work promised by Robert-Houdin in his *Memoirs*, on the subject of legerdemain and its professors, never appeared. On the contrary, such a work, under the title of *Les Secrets de la Prestidigitation et de la Magie*, was published by Michel Lévy frères in 1868. The treatise is by far the best that has ever appeared on the subject of conjuring, but has for some years been out of print, and is not to be found in the British Museum, which may possibly account for Mr. Frost's ignorance of its existence.

Passing on from Robert-Houdin, the next name of special mark is that of Wiljalba Frikell, who in his turn introduced a new phase of the art. The staple of Robert-Houdin's performances consisted of illusions in which sleight of hand was subordinate to scientific and mechanical effects, and the use of elaborate apparatus formed a special and undisguised feature of his entertainments. Frikell, on the other hand, used ostensibly no apparatus whatever, and worked with the objects and materials of everyday life; not that he did in truth discard mechanical aids, but all his energies were directed to conceal their employment. In place of the showy boxes and vases of Anderson, or the elegant automata of Robert-Houdin, a simple-looking table and a couple of chairs formed the whole of Frikell's stage furniture; and bottles, coins, handkerchiefs, and other everyday articles were the subjects of his illusions. Since his day conjurors have fluctuated between the one school and the

other; but the elegant simplicity, the *ars celare artem*, of Frikell will always find the highest favour with enlightened connoisseurs.

It will startle most readers to be told that the next performer of note, Colonel Stodare, was a Frenchman, though not perhaps more than to find it gravely stated that the "automatic character" of Kempelen's chessplayer "has been doubted." After this hesitating admission of doubt on a matter which most persons regard as admitting no question whatever, we are not surprised to find that Mr. Frost appears more than half inclined to believe in the genuine "automatic character" of Mr. Maskelyne's whistplayer, Psycho, to which he devotes a good deal of space. A memoir of Messrs. Maskelyne and Cooke, and brief notices of Dr. Lynn and Professor de Vere, conclude the work, which, notwithstanding many defects, forms a decidedly interesting book, and might have been much more so had the author taken the pains to procure original information instead of relying on narratives already in print. An author who undertakes to write the Lives of the Conjurors should surely show some little personal knowledge of conjurors, but throughout this book there is not a single indication that Mr. Frost ever exchanged half a dozen words with a conjuror in his life. Had he mixed in ever so slight a degree with the fraternity, not only would his book have acquired a vitality much beyond what it now possesses, but he would have avoided many glaring errors both of omission and commission. Of many of the magnates of the craft he makes no mention whatever, though we gather from an incidental remark in his preface that he conceives himself to have passed over no performer worthy of notice. We can overlook his omission of such minor stars as Méhay, Taylor, Matthews, Tolmaque, Hellis, Evanion, Max Alexander, Bernard Eagle, and Mme. Card, though all are more or less known to the London public, and might fairly claim a niche in Mr. Frost's temple of Fame. But such well-known artists as Basch, Buatier, Courtois, Cleverman, Robert Heller, Seemann, and (as we have already mentioned) the younger Hermann, are also conspicuous by their absence, and the reader is almost inclined to fancy that there must be a second volume which is somehow missing.

BEAMES'S COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR OF THE ARYAN LANGUAGES OF INDIA.*

SOME time since we welcomed the first volume of this work.† Mr. Beames claims indulgence for the tardy appearance of the second volume in consequence of his onerous duties in a remote province of India, an indulgence which will be readily granted to him. A book of this kind is a work of time even for one who enjoys uninterrupted leisure, and the process of printing it must necessarily have been slow. We are disposed to think this volume an improvement upon the first. It has less of dogmatism and theory, and more of fact and illustration, but it here and there bears that "unfinished appearance" for which the author apologizes, and which he attributes to his want of the necessary time. It may be well to recall to memory that the languages with which the work deals are the North Indian languages, seven in number—Hindi, Panjabi, Sindhi, Gujarati, Marathi, Oriya, and Bengali. Hindi is the leading language of the group. It embraces a variety of dialects, and these have many variant grammatical forms which are of great importance for philological purposes. The first volume deals only with "Sounds"—that is to say, with alphabetical matters; this volume is devoted to the Noun and Pronoun. First Mr. Beames examines the "Formation of the Stem" of the noun, showing how the original Sanskrit word has been cut down and shaped in the modern tongues, the inquiry being "entirely concentrated on the final syllable or suffix." The chapter devoted to this subject is the longest in the book. It is a very necessary one, but it naturally deals with small details rather than matters of wide principle and interest. The concluding section of this chapter on the Numerals is important and curious, for the numerals of the Northern languages of India furnish a very convincing proof, perhaps the most convincing, of the descent of these languages through the Prakrits from Sanskrit. Languages of the Indo-European family generally start with the units from one up to ten, and then work out in their own way the successive numbers up to one hundred. Not so the languages of Northern India; they borrow the whole hundred ready made from Sanskrit through the intermediate stage of the Prakrits, each word being modified and rounded off to suit the softer and shorter enunciation of modern days and the special peculiarities of each language. So the numbers from ten to a hundred, though they bear such a resemblance to their respective units and tens that no blunder can be made on seeing them, yet each number must be known by itself, as it cannot be formed by the combination of the ten and unit. It is obvious that this derivation of the numerals proves most distinctly from what source these languages sprang.

The chapter on Gender is instructive and interesting, as it exhibits the various efforts made by the modern tongues to get rid of this useless and troublesome element of the ancient language. The opening paragraphs of this chapter are not so satisfactory as they might be:—

Gender [says Mr. Beames] is of two kinds, natural and grammatical. Natural gender is that which refers to living beings, and is threefold; there

* A Comparative Grammar of the Modern Aryan Languages of India. By John Beames. Vol. II. The Noun and Pronoun. London: Trübner & Co.

† Saturday Review, March 21, 1874.

being one form for males, a second for females, and a third for mankind or animals regarded as such without reference to sex. The human mind has, however, not rested content with this simple and natural use of gender, but has by an effort of imagination extended the distinction of sex to inanimate objects, abstract ideas, and, in short, to all nouns of every kind. All languages are not alike in this respect; some retain all three genders, others only two, and some have had the good fortune to emancipate themselves, entirely in the noun, and to a great extent in the pronoun, from these awkward and cumbersome swaddling-clothes of speech. This is happily the case with our own beautiful and practical language, and is an advantage for which we ought to be deeply thankful to our Norman ancestors, whose keen common sense led them to reject much that was useless and unwieldy in the speech of our English forefathers.

In this, it may be observed, there is an unfortunate confusion of sex and gender, which are not the same thing, however closely they may be allied. It is sex that is natural, while gender is grammatical and artificial. Those languages are the simplest in this respect which, like our own, recognize no distinction but that of sex. We have such nouns as "master" and "mistress," "executor" and "executrix"; we have also the pronouns "he," "she," and "it"; but these words denote the natural distinctions of sex or the absence of it, they do not represent the artificial distinction of gender. Mr. Beames so confuses sex and gender that we hardly know how to take him when he talks of languages "emancipating themselves, entirely in the noun, and to a great extent in the pronoun, from these awkward and cumbersome swaddling-clothes of speech." If he really means gender, and not sex, we entirely agree with him, and are quite content that relative pronouns should have no distinction of gender. If, however, he means that the distinction of sex may be dispensed with, and that, as in the languages with which he deals, one word may do duty for "he," "she," and "it," we strongly dissent from his judgment, and cling to the simplicity and perspicuity of our own personal pronouns. More than once Mr. Beames shows his partiality for "our Norman ancestors," and for the influence which he believes them to have exercised over our language. That influence was important, and in some respects beneficial, but it is absurd to talk of their "keen common sense" rejecting useless forms, as if they had deliberately considered the question, and come to a judgment as to what ought to be got rid of. The changes which took place in our language when it was moulded into its present form are attributable to no special influence either Norman or otherwise, but to that unfelt, unseen process of simplification which is always more or less actively at work, and was especially active when the speech of the Norman conquerors was broken down and merged in the tongue of their English subjects. But though we occasionally differ from Mr. Beames in his opinions and deductions, we do not undervalue his labours, or in any way depreciate the results of his industry and ability. The history of gender in the Aryan languages of India is curious:—"Sanskrit has all three genders, and so have the Prakrits. In the modern languages only Gujarati and Marathi have all three. Sindhi, Panjabi, and Hindi have only masculine and feminine; Bengali and Oriya have no gender at all, except in the pure Sanskrit words now so largely introduced, which retain the form of the Sanskrit gender, but even this only in the higher style." Mr. Beames thinks that the use of gender has shown signs of becoming less habitual, and of gradually dying out. Gender exists in Hindi and Panjabi, but it is frequently disregarded, and it would probably have fallen into disuse but for the rise of a literature and the establishment of the printing-press. It is a linguistic refinement that can well be dispensed with, and we join in "setting our faces against the obnoxious pedantry of some modern Bengali writers, who, in resuscitating a Sanskrit adjective, bring back with it the gender which the spoken language has long ago got rid of."

The modern languages have discarded the system of case-termination which obtained in Sanskrit, and have adopted the analytical method of employing detached particles. Hindi is prominent in this respect, Sindhi the most backward. Dr. Trumpp, the author of an excellent grammar of Sindhi, has claimed for that language a pre-eminence, "in a grammatical point of view," because "it has preserved an exuberance of grammatical forms for which its sisters may well envy it." This has stirred up the wrath of Mr. Beames, who exclaims against it as "false philology," and pours forth a torrent of eloquence about it. "As well," he says, "might the modern traveller, carried at the rate of thirty miles an hour in a comfortable railway carriage, envy the ancient German plunging through the muddy forest-roads in his vast and unwieldy bullock-waggon." This, and more in the same strain which follows, is all very right, but was scarcely called for, as the superiority claimed for Sindhi was restricted to its grammatical riches, and had no reference to its practical utility. Sindhi has kept closer to the Prakrits than any other of the modern languages, and so is richer in grammatical forms and has a higher value for purely technical purposes; but no one would dream of placing it in the first rank as a medium of intercourse.

We pass on to the declension of nouns, which, taken philologically, has more interest than any other part of the grammar of these languages. The noun presents the greatest divergences from Sanskrit and the Prakrits, and shows at the same time some puzzling analogies to the Dravidian languages of the South. On the strength of these resemblances some writers have claimed the languages of Northern India as members of the Dravidian branch of the Turanian family. This is an affiliation that can by no means be conceded, for except in this single matter of declension the Northern tongues are clearly of Aryan descent. Such other peculiarities as the languages of the North and South have in common may be passed over as fortuitous; but the method of declension

must not be so lightly dismissed. A rule has been laid down in the science of comparative philology to the effect that, however freely words may be borrowed, grammatical forms are not adopted from an alien language. This is undoubtedly a reasonable maxim, and of very general application; but if ever there was reason to doubt its universality, these languages afford the opportunity. The Northern languages preserve none of the case-endings of Sanskrit, but the general principle of declension is this. The nouns have a nominative singular and plural, and an oblique form singular and plural; the oblique form being that to which the post-positions are added to distinguish the different cases. Now this is exactly the method of the Dravidian languages. The derivation of these oblique forms from the Prakrits is confessedly "the most intricate and difficult part of the inquiry." Mr. Beames, indeed, smooths over the difficulty by saying that "the mystery is not so much what they are, as how they came to assume their present shapes." This, it is obvious, begs the question. It assumes the relationship, though the family likeness is hardly traceable. A good deal of ingenuity is shown in the endeavour to trace the oblique forms to the Sanskrit case-endings; but the conclusion arrived at is, "that in both singular and plural the terminations of the oblique descend from a general form produced by the fusion of all the oblique cases of Sanskrit." A possible, though not a very convincing, result. But admitting the fact, under what influence did the modern languages develop these oblique forms, which are as foreign to Sanskrit as they are to Greek and Latin? Side by side with them, and even mixed up with some of them, were the Dravidian tongues, in which this mode of declension is an especial feature. The possibility of their having exercised an influence ought to be fairly examined, and not to be dismissed under the authority of an arbitrary rule, which, as we shall presently show, is admitted to have some exceptions. Again, the use of post-positions is another Dravidian feature which has to be taken into account, although the arguments founded upon it have been pushed too far. Some of these post-positions are traceable to Sanskrit sources, though with great difficulty and uncertainty. As an example, we will notice the dative particle *ko*, which is identical in sound with the Dravidian sign of the dative, *ko*, *ku*. The believers in Dravidian influences have held this to be an incontrovertible proof of identity. Mr. Beames is successful in showing that, although the words are now identical, they were not so much alike in ancient times. He adduces the old forms *kahan*, and *kahun*, in face of which it is impossible to claim for this particle a direct relationship with the Dravidian *ko*, which is known to have been spelt more than a thousand years ago just as it is at present. But, though successful in repudiating the Dravidian connexion, the author is not so convincing in the Sanskrit origin he assigns to this particle; and the difficulty is made manifest enough by the fact that he has changed the opinion expressed in his first volume. There he attributed it to the syllable *kam*, the accusative case of Sanskrit nouns in *ka*. We took occasion to express a doubt of this derivation. Dr. Trumpp, in his *Sindhi Grammar*, referred this particle to the Sanskrit *krite*, "for the sake of." Mr. Beames now throws over his first theory and Dr. Trumpp's proposition in favour of the Sanskrit *kakāṣe*, "at the side." All this shows the great difficulty of accounting for the origin of this particle, and we must confess that Mr. Beames's last theory is not a whit more satisfactory to us than the former one. The best that can be said about most of the speculations on the cases are that they are plausible, but not convincing; worthy of consideration as theories, but not admissible as demonstrations. We are as fully convinced as Mr. Beames can be of the descent of the Northern languages from Sanskrit, but their apparent similarities to the Dravidian tongues ought to be thoroughly examined. This work will not be complete without it, and we should be glad to see Mr. Beames handle the matter in a concluding chapter. The relations between the Aryan and Dravidian races in India have had their effects on both sides, and may have influenced language as well as other matters. Mr. Beames admits this, and says "there is great reason to suspect non-Aryan influence" both in the Bengali and Oriya. The nature and extent of this influence is well worth investigation. That the modern languages of India are not proof against foreign grammatical influence is shown by the fact that "Sindhi allies itself to Persian and Pushtu by a practice foreign to its sister-tongues of suffixing pronominal signs to nouns, pronouns, and verbs, a complicated and difficult system from which the other languages are fortunately free." On the other hand, the Gond, a language of the Dravidian family, seems to have lost the relative participle which is peculiar to the Dravidian tongues, and has adopted from the Hindi a relative pronoun, a thing which is utterly unknown to its sisters. The last chapter, on the Pronoun, is short and comparatively clear, because these words are traceable with more distinctness and certainty to the Prakrit forms.

We have criticized some of Mr. Beames's views, but in a friendly spirit and with a just appreciation of the difficulty and the value of his labours. He has enjoyed unusual opportunities for the work he has undertaken, and neither industry nor critical acumen has been wanting to turn them to the best account. Upon one point we must again express our regret. The Nāgari character is used throughout, and but a very small portion of the Indian words has been Romanized. The book is therefore a sealed one to those who are unacquainted with the Nāgari alphabet, and will not render all the service it might to philological science.

MINOR NOTICES.

MR. DARWIN has prepared a second edition of his masterly work, *The Variations of Animals and Plants under Domestication**, in which he has embodied the results of his continued researches, and of communications from correspondents, during the seven years which have elapsed since its first appearance. Mr. Darwin adopts the excellent plan of giving a table of the principal additions and corrections which he has made, from which it will be seen that it is only on some minor points of detail, which do not disturb his general conclusions, that he has anything to retract or modify. The chapters on Pangenesis and Inheritance have been partially remodelled. It is unnecessary to repeat what has before been said of the high merits of this work as a model of clear, precise, and delicately adjusted scientific statement, in which a vast body of scattered facts seem to take ordered shape, as if by natural crystallization. There is no straining or twisting of argument, but only a quiet, steady accumulation of suggestive observations. If, when the work was first published, there were any doubts as to the soundness of any parts of the evidence, these must now be removed by the seven years' sifting to which it has been subjected.

Dr. Richardson, whose Utopian ideal of a town under perfect sanitary control was the chief attraction of the Social Science Congress at Brighton, has just published an important work on the diseases of modern life, based upon a series of essays which he wrote some years ago, and which he has now developed into a more comprehensive and systematic treatise. This work is intended, not as a mere technical work, but for general reading; but the author gives warning that any one who expects to find in it "domestic medicine," or revelations of the arcanum of medicine, will be disappointed, and explains that, avoiding every infringement on the art proper of curing disease, he has confined himself solely to the science of prevention. This is undoubtedly an aspect of the subject which is too much neglected, and it is to be hoped that Dr. Richardson's weighty observations will receive attention. It may be thought that on some points he pushes his conclusions rather too far; but there is undoubtedly a sound body of truth in his earnest warnings. He lays great stress on the avoidance of strain and worry in connexion with mental work, on prudent reserve in physical exercise, and on the alternation of work and rest. He has no tolerance for stimulants of any kind; but recommends careful diet and scrupulous cleanliness, not merely in person and as regards the clothes worn next the skin, but in regard to all clothing, which, he holds, should be frequently changed, and never worn threadbare. Perfect isolation is his first principle in regard to contagious disease, and stricter care against the intermarriage of disease is also very strongly insisted upon.

Some time ago, Mr. Armstrong, who had already attracted attention by a poetical tragedy called *Ugone*, published the first instalment of a trilogy to which he gave the name of *The Tragedy of Israel*†. The first part was devoted to Saul, and now we have the other two parts, dealing respectively with David and Solomon. There can be no doubt that this is in various ways a production displaying genuine power and original thought. Mr. Armstrong's object appears to be to show that the Jewish kings were, after all, human beings like the rest of us. How far he has in each case caught the right key to the historical characters which he depicts is perhaps a question upon which much deep criticism might be expended; but it would, after all, be rather thrown away. The best way to appreciate Mr. Armstrong's work is to take it simply for what it is—a vivid dramatic poem, dealing with various problems of human passion, suffering, and trial. The language and often the ideas are entirely modern, but this only helps to bring out the essential humanity of the men before us, and the reality of their flesh and blood. Saul is represented, not as the champion of despotism and superstition, but rather as a disappointed reformer, somewhat in advance of his time. In David we have a touching picture of the inward struggles of a man of a warm, impulsive nature, who by his passionate faith in God and his feeling that he is in a mysterious and special way God's chosen instrument, is led to regard himself as raised above the ordinary level of his kind, and entitled to indulge himself in freedom from ordinary restraints as the reward of his peculiar mission. His thoughts soar "high as an eagle, to embrace the world," and he has visions of "one unfound ineffable splendour" which is to complete his life:—

Still the white peaks, and still the heaven beyond,
And inaccessible and viewless realms,
And heights without a name! and if I climb,
What end? and where the quiet of the heart,
Ambition's balm? where perfect empery,
The slumber of old pride, the satiate soul?

In the midst of these lofty aspirations he finds himself struck down by a sense of his fleshly weakness and degradation. Then come Absalom's rebellion and death, and David himself then passes away dreaming of immortality. Solomon is shown carrying his ambitious wisdom and insatiable curiosity to the furthest limits, till, finding himself suddenly checked in a grand scheme of universal

conquest, and his strength of mind and body also failing him, he gives himself up to despair:—

Empty now
My life as a drained goblet, and my days
Raw as a drunkard's dawn.
* * * * *
This life of man is utter weariness;
The world a burthen, galling every hour;
Mist, mist around, above; shadow and sun,
Shadow and sun; faint forms that glint and fly;
Sands shifting under foot; no staff or stay!
My wisdom was mere folly!

And his last words are:—

Out upon this grey life of nothingness!

Mr. Armstrong's style is not only vigorous but polished, and he has a certain largeness of utterance which gives elevation to his verse, without making it heavy. Altogether there is much freshness and power in these poems, though they may perhaps in some passages puzzle those who are accustomed only to conventional views of Scriptural persons and incidents.

The author of *The King's Sacrifice** is rather a prosy poet. In his preface he anticipates the objection that he may be thought to be somewhat obscure, but he explains that this is unavoidable in treating of "themes which no one has ever yet succeeded in making easy reading." As regards the first piece, which gives the title to his volume, this excuse may perhaps be allowed. It tells the story of Nezahualcoyoth, King of Tezcuco, who was not only "the poet, legislator, astronomer, and first warrior of his age," but "yet more, the prophet and religious reformer," and who set himself to regenerate his country by suppressing human sacrifices, and supplanting polytheism by the worship of Ipānemoāni—"Him by whom we live; the Unknown; the Creator of all Things." He finds, however, that the time is not ripe for these advances in civilization, and, maddened by the murder of his son, he gives himself up to the priests, and allows them to "slay and feast" as much as they like. It may be thought a proof of courage and self-confidence that a poet should burden himself in his efforts to be melodious with such words as Popocatepeth, Quetzalcōtē, Tenochtitlan, Mizcoāzin, Pilmanazin, and the idea and machinery of the story are all of a mysterious kind. The subject is not inviting, and we cannot wonder that the writer should fail to make it "easy reading." In "Oak-burn," a sketch of modern society, however, he has a better chance. This is evidently written in imitation of Tennyson, and is a striking example of the distinction between real poetry and a mere stringing of words. Here is a sample:—

In a haze of glimmering lawn
And titter of girl-Tattons Mabel swam
Till Tea should be proclaimed; and while the tall,
Scant-headed Dr. Firlot in the air
Portray'd the sun's penumbra, pencil'd up
The conformation of his photosphere
Like willow-leaves, Miss Ribbledale, as who
Should say, "How sweet, how interesting now!"
A meek smile sent to meek responsive Cheek,
Perpetual curate of Dydelle-cum-Dish.

Or, again:—

The question rising if need were to spoil
Hot cakes with waiting, Mrs. Tatton thought
Decision lay with Mabel: promptly Cheek
Was handing Mabel muffin. As he did it,
Shyly with Mowbray stept the stranger in—
Tall, slender, with fine eyes.

And then we have the heroic climax:—

And Roland sat with Mabel through the Tea!

In the serious pieces this prosy wordiness is perhaps less offensive; but the writer of these four hundred pages of dull, lumbering verse has certainly mistaken his vocation.

Mrs. Pfeiffer† has undoubtedly the true spirit of a singer, though her execution is apt to be crude and wayward, and what she has to say is very unequal. She is certainly not successful in her ballads, and we are led to suspect that the apparent ease of this form of verse tempts her into a careless haste. In the sonnets she is at her best, and this may possibly be due to the restraint which is imposed by the necessity for careful choice and economy of words in this style of composition.

"Violet Fane,"‡ the author of *Densil Place*, has composed another volume of weak and watery verse—if verse it can be called, for, except that it is printed in the form of verse, it is only ordinary prose. There is so far an improvement in her present work that there is no repetition of the improprieties which tainted the earlier one.

Mr. Williams has produced a voluminous history of the Midland Railway§, which, though perhaps rather overloaded with gazetteer matter, gives a very interesting and lively picture of railway enterprise. We are shown the successive developments of an ambitious and enterprising Company, always on the alert; now dashing into a neighbouring territory, now meeting an invasion on its own; if baffled in one direction, immediately seeking an outlet somewhere else, and all the while steadily spreading its long feelers over the country like a vigorous octopus. It is quite thrilling to follow the almost incessant warfare between the Midland and other railways; the desperate conflicts for traffic now at

* *The Variations of Animals and Plants under Domestication*. By Charles Darwin, M.A. Second Edition. 2 vols. John Murray.

† *Discusses of Modern Life*. By B. W. Richardson, M.D. Macmillan & Co.

‡ *The Tragedy of Israel*. Part II. David. Part III. Solomon. By G. F. Armstrong. Longmans & Co.

* *The King's Sacrifice; and other Poems*. Smith, Elder, & Co.

† *Poems*. By Emily Pfeiffer. Strahan.

‡ *The Queen of the Fairies; and other Poems*. By Violet Fane. Chapman & Hall.

§ *The Midland Railway*. By F. S. Williams. Strahan & Co.

one point, now at another; a fierce war closed perhaps by a sudden alliance with the enemy, and then another war breaking out in a new place. Whatever may be thought of the policy of the Midland Company on various points, there can at least be no doubt as to its energy and wonderful growth. Mr. Williams's book is illustrated by some excellent illustrations of local scenery, and contains a good deal of amusing gossip. There are various points, however, on which more specific information might have been given.

Mr. Carew Hazlitt's edition of Dodsley's *Old English Plays** is now completed by the issue of the fourteenth and fifteenth volumes. We have already expressed our opinion of the earlier volumes of this work (see *Saturday Review*, April 3, 1875), and need only repeat that, although Mr. Hazlitt is not quite such a careful and accurate editor as might be desired, he and his publishers have by this useful reproduction rendered an important service to all who are interested in the history of dramatic literature. At the same time we cannot help thinking that some of the pieces which have been reprinted, especially those in the last two volumes, might with advantage have been left in obscurity, as being mere stupid obscenity, without either literary or historical interest.

A new edition of Dr. Dyer's *Pompeii*†, revised and enlarged by himself, has just appeared, bringing the information down to the latest date. The value of Dr. Dyer's scholarly work has already been recognized, and, in its present form, it is the most complete and convenient record of the ancient city. It should be mentioned that it is illustrated with numerous wood engravings and an excellent map.

Sir Robert Phillimore has reprinted a number of his judgments in the Court of Arches‡ as a memorial of that obsolete tribunal, and it is no doubt a very appropriate one. The latest judgments of this Court—those in the tombstone case and in *Jenkins v. Cook*—were not perhaps very happy, and they have since been summarily reversed by the Privy Council. On the whole, Sir Robert's judgments are more remarkable for their rhetorical flow than for clearness of perception.

By the substitution of woodcuts for coloured lithographs, and the omission of some references which are easily accessible in other forms, the publishers of Dr. Donaldson's well-known *Theatre of the Greeks*§ have been enabled to issue a compact edition of that valuable work at a low price, which will no doubt be welcomed as a boon by students. Tate's essay on the *Metres* is retained in this edition.

It is amazing what empty and absurd publications are nowadays put forth as school-books. For the study of the language, Messrs. Cassal and Karcher's *Anthology of Modern French Poetry*|| may possibly be of some use, though we should think that prose, in which the French excel, would have been more profitable as an exercise. Except in its highest forms, French poetry is poor stuff, and it seems rather hard that English schoolboys should have to wade through the mass of weak verbiage which is here collected under the name of poetry. The editors display a singular fatuity in asserting that "the (French) poets of our days yield to those of no other country either in purity of thought or taste, or in vivid imagination, or in graphic power of expression." In point of fact, there is nothing so worthless as modern French poetry, if we leave out one or two eminent exceptions to the average mediocrity. There are hardly more than three or four of the writers quoted in the present collection who have ever been heard of before, and the samples of their verse do not encourage any desire for further acquaintance. Here is a specimen:—

C'est la petite mendiante
Qui vous demande un peu de pain;
Donnez à la pauvre innocente;
Donnez, donnez, car elle a faim.

Si ma plainte vous importune,
Eh bien! je vais rire et chanter.
De l'aspect de mon infortune
Je ne dois pas vous attrister.

The Three Trials of William Hone¶, which have been reprinted in their original form by Mr. Tegg, are interesting as an illustration of the temper both of the Government and of the Judges of that day in regard to popular literature, but are otherwise not of much value. The parodies on the Liturgy for which Hone was prosecuted are equally silly and profane, but it is evident that he was chosen for attack not so much on account of the profanity of his writings as because they were directed against certain public men. He was able to show that similar breaches of good taste on the part of others had been overlooked, and public feeling was against the apparent overstraining of the law. It is difficult, however, to have much sympathy with Hone, who could easily have expressed his views in a less indecorous manner. His speeches at the different trials bring out very strongly his pluck and shrewdness, as well as his acquaintance with books.

* *Dodsley's Old English Plays*. Chronologically arranged, with the Notes of all the Commentators, and New Notes. By W. Carew Hazlitt. Vols. XIV. and XV. Reeves & Turner.

† *Pompeii*. By J. H. Dyer, LL.D. New Edition, revised and enlarged. G. Bell & Sons.

‡ *The Principal Ecclesiastical Judgments delivered in the Court of Arches, 1867 to 1875*. By the Right Hon. Sir Robert Phillimore, D.C.L. Rivingtons.

§ *The Theatre of the Greeks*. By J. W. Donaldson, D.D. Eighth Edition. G. Bell & Sons.

|| *Anthology of Modern French Poetry*. Junior Course. Edited by Prof. C. Cassal and Prof. T. Karcher. Longmans & Co.

¶ *The Three Trials of William Hone*. With Introduction and Notes by W. Tegg. W. Tegg & Co.

"Stonehenge" is a name of such established authority on all sporting matters that it is unnecessary to say more of his book on British rural sports* than that it has reached a twelfth edition, in which all the latest varieties of athletic and other amusements are fully explained. Since the first appearance of this work, croquet, lawn tennis, canoeing, bicycling, and roller-skating have come into fashion, and when "Stonehenge" next revises his manual, some of these will probably have been supplanted by new devices. He thinks that rinking has now taken a permanent place among English sports, as it requires skill, and affords "the hard-worked professional man an hour's physical exercise at any hour of the day most convenient to him, and in a form that affords him the purest delight." The first roller-skate seems to have been invented in 1823 by one Tyers, a fruiterer in Piccadilly, and other patents of a similar kind followed at intervals, but none of these skates were guidable in curves, except at the expense of enormous friction. It was not till 1865, when J. L. Plimpton of New York brought out his now famous skate, that curves and all other figures known on ice were brought within the reach of skaters on an artificial floor, and some years elapsed before it was taken up by the public in this country, though it was occasionally used by professionals on the stage. Bicycling is another economical amusement. A good roadster with a driving wheel fifty inches high can be got for 13*l.*; it costs no more for repairs, if fairly used, than a horse's shoes; it involves no expense on a journey save a small allowance for oiling and cleaning; and an indifferent rider can average nine or ten miles an hour without feeling distressed at the end of a day of ordinary length. Stanton has done 650 miles 1,176 yards in 47 hours 10 minutes, net time, or an average of rather more than 13½ miles an hour. "Stonehenge" has an interesting chapter on the "choke-bore" gun.

Baedeker's *Guide to Palestine and Syria*† is the joint work of Dr. Socin, Professor of Oriental Languages at Basle, who is well acquainted with the Holy Land, and the publisher himself, who made a tour for the purpose of making the information as complete and exact as possible. A great deal of matter has been compressed into a moderate space, and the directions as to the details of travelling appear to be very judicious and complete. There are also a number of good maps, and generally this guide-book fulfils all those qualities of practical usefulness which have made the reputation of the series to which it belongs.

Mr. Paget‡ has drawn up an interesting statement of the strength of British and foreign ironclad navies, giving dimensions, armour, details of armament, engines, speed, and other particulars. Ships, he justly contends, must now be measured by their individual power, and not by mere numbers. The *Inflexible*, for instance, if her speed is sufficient, will, with her 24 inches of armour and her 81-ton guns, be fully able to hold her own against the combined attack of a fleet, because she will engage at a range at which her own armour will be invulnerable, while her tremendous guns will pierce anything opposed to it. On the other hand, if we keep up mixed squadrons with guns of from 6½ to 35 tons, they will have to engage at a range at which the heavier guns will have no advantage. Mr. Paget thinks that the design of the *Monarch* has never been properly developed, and that partial armour-plating is enough.

Mr. Rogers has gone into the history of George Wishart, the Scottish martyr§, with a view to test the truth of the charges that he was a visionary who illegally assumed the priestly office, denied the doctrine of the atonement, and conspired against the life of Cardinal Beaton; and he has arrived at the conclusion that Wishart did not claim prophetic powers, preached with canonical sanction, did not act as an ordained priest, always taught the doctrine of the atonement, and not only did not know of the plot against Beaton, but, if he knew it, condemned it. The last of these propositions strikes one as rather equivocal, and almost proving too much. We have to thank Mr. Rogers, however, for an interesting monograph.

Mr. Reed has republished in a volume the letters from Russia|| which he contributed to the *Times*. He adheres, in the main, to the views therein expressed.

With a view to make known the present condition of Jerusalem, and the need of help for the Jewish population there, Sir Moses Montefiore has published a record of his journey last year¶, which will be read with the respect due to his courage and enthusiasm.

Mr. Dunning Macleod has put forth a synopsis of his views on credit, banking, and the foreign exchanges, in a handy manual, under the title of *Elements of Banking***.

The extraordinary miscarriage of Lord St. Leonards's will†† should be a warning to every man, lawyer or layman, against being foolish enough to fancy that he can dispense with the usual professional assistance in carrying out his testamentary wishes. But there are,

* *British Rural Sports*. By Stonehenge. Twelfth Edition. F. Warne & Co.

† *Palestine and Syria. Handbook for Travellers*. Edited by G. K. Baedeker. Leipzig: Baedeker.

‡ *Naval Powers and their Policy*. By J. C. Paget. Longmans & Co.

§ *Life of George Wishart, the Scottish Martyr*. By Rev. C. Rogers. Edinburgh: Paterson.

|| *Letters from Russia in 1875*. By E. J. Reed, C.B., M.P. Murray.

¶ *An Open Letter: addressed to Sir M. Montefiore, Bart., on his Visit to Jerusalem in 1875; and a Narrative of Forty Days' Sojourn in the Holy Land*. By Sir M. Montefiore. Wertheimer & Co.

** *The Elements of Banking*. By H. Dunning Macleod. Longmans & Co.

†† *Practical Advice to Testators and Executors*. By W. Phippen. Third Edition. Hamilton, Adams, & Co.

no doubt, points on which intending testators are anxious to be informed, and Mr. Phippen's "Practical Advice" is plain and to the point.

Mr. Archer's account of various forms of charitable work* contains a good deal of interesting information, but is disfigured by a rather twaddling style, and a canting affectation which substitutes Scriptural phrases for the ordinary names of the various institutions which are passed under review. Thus, for instance, we have "With them that go down to the sea in ships," "With the children of the stranger," "With them that faint by the way," "In the Valley of the Shadow of Death," "With them who have not where to lay their heads," "Feeding the Multitude," and so on, instead of such simple titles as Sailors' Homes, "Providence" Hospital, Invalid Asylum for Respectable Females, Royal Hospital for Incurables, Night Refuges, Soup-Kitchens. Still the book is worth looking at.

Miss Hope's *Life of Grace Darling*† is in one way a work of a very unsatisfactory character. We do not know how far it is fiction and how far matter-of-fact biography. We are treated to long conversations between different persons the report of which must be to a great extent imaginary; that is to say, the conversations may have actually occurred, but, unless there was a shorthand writer present to take down what was said, it is difficult to see how it can now be literally reproduced. The truth is that Grace Darling's life, with the exception of the heroic adventure by which she made herself famous, was, like her character, extremely simple, and might be all told in a comparatively brief space. But then Miss Hope had determined to make a book, and a book she has made. At the very beginning there is a great lump of padding about Mrs. Fry and women's work in general, then we have an account of ancient Northumbria, with quotations from Dean Stanley, and so on. The volume is further expanded by chapters about lighthouses and perils of the sea. The chapter called "August Picnics" may be taken as an example of Miss Hope's style of passing off twaddling fiction as biography.

Mr. Vincent has compiled a useful record of scientific and mechanical progress during the past year.‡ A great many valuable facts are constantly turning up in scientific newspapers and journals, but are afterwards apt to be lost on account of the scattered way in which they are published. Mr. Vincent's *Year-Book* is a sort of sieve in which the most important fragments of this information are collected.

Mr. Martin's *Statesman's Year Book*§ keeps up its reputation for conciseness and sufficiency. No one can understand foreign questions without such a work at hand for constant reference. Many unfortunate Turkish bondholders and the victims of other unscrupulous States might have saved their money if they had previously invested in Mr. Martin's modest manual, and studied the amount of debts already contracted. The armaments of various States are also an instructive clue to their foreign policy. There is nothing more useful for Englishmen, just now, or indeed at all times, than to understand exactly how their neighbours are situated.

Mr. Tufnell's slapdash and prejudiced attack on the system of boarding-out children|| as practised in Scotland, and to some extent in England, has naturally given great offence. Mr. Skelton, the Secretary of the Poor Law Board in Scotland, feels bound to treat Mr. Tufnell to what in that country is called a "good heckling," and certainly does not mince matters. He feels bound to say that in Mr. Tufnell's "indictment directed against the Poor Law authorities in Scotland, the strict and absolute adherence to facts which should characterize official documents has not been observed." The facts which Mr. Skelton sets forth would seem to justify his assertion that the boarding-out system gives very good results in Scotland.

At first sight the title of Miss Yonge's book seems to suggest that it is rather out of date. *Christmas Mummings*¶, however, is only one of seven stories, and they are all good stories, in Miss Yonge's well-known style, and fit for any time of year.

Nothing is more exhilarating than a sojourn in the Highlands in good weather, with agreeable friends and plenty of sport, and it is natural to find a record of such experiences brimming over with frolicsome good nature and animal spirits. What, however, sportsmen who take to literature are in some danger of forgetting is that it is difficult to reproduce the atmosphere of their own exhilaration for the benefit of readers at a distance. A joke may be an excellent joke in a particular company at a particular moment, but it is wonderful how it evaporates when bottled for exportation. This remark applies to Mr. Abbott's *Ardenmoor*** "a record of scenery and sports in the Highlands of Scotland." It is satisfactory to see that Mr. Abbott enjoyed himself so heartily; but, after all, the telling of it is apt to flag. It is written in that cheerful, slangy, simple-minded style which is so much appreciated in

sporting circles, where healthy physical exercise and a good appetite allay any troublesome craving for intellectual excitement. There are, however, some touches of "pawky" humour both in the etchings and the letterpress.

The object of Mr. George Clifford's *Life Assurance Handbook** is to "restore public confidence in Life Assurance Offices." The writer describes the working of a number of offices as an illustration of the conditions under which, he thinks, absolute safety can be secured. We should be disposed to doubt, however, whether pushing and puffing are so essential to the success of a well-established office as he seems to imagine; and it is obvious that this must involve a heavy expenditure of a somewhat doubtful kind.

Mr. Bartley, who has made a special study of the Poor Law system†, and is already known by several works on the subject, has compiled a manual of the duties of Guardians, with practical examples of the treatment of typical cases. It must tend very much to simplify a Guardian's labours to have such a clear and practical guide at hand, and Mr. Bartley, besides distinctly explaining the duties, gives some sensible advice.

Mr. Rooper once spent some time in a wild corner of County Mayo, where he had some good shooting; and he has thrown some personal reminiscences of his residence there into the form of a story.‡ In these days there has been rather a surfeit of pictures of Irish life, and, though Mr. Rooper's are not without interest, they are rather too much like what one has read before about the "potheen," the pretty girls, the big salmon, and all the rest of it.

The object of *First Steps in Geography*§ is to prepare young pupils for the study of geography by giving them an interest in the accurate observation of surrounding objects, and making them understand the elementary notions and technical phrases which will afterwards have to be applied. A sound foundation is thus laid for future instruction. The work is intended for the assistance of teachers, and is adapted to the most recent revision of the New Code.

The Oxford University Press has issued what is said to be "the smallest Prayer-Book in the world."|| It is three and a half inches in length, and weighs barely an ounce. Only a very foolish person would ever think of ruining his eyesight by reading such exceedingly minute type, especially as it is made still more indistinct by the extreme thinness of the paper. The only excuse for such a work is that it is a typographical curiosity.

Debrett's annual issues¶ are of the usual character; but the volume which deals with the House of Commons acquires a particular value from being enriched by Dr. Kenely's coat of arms, which is a magnificent combination of quarterings from the blazonings of England and ancient France plus those of some apocryphal Irish chieftain. We do not know whether it is guaranteed by the Herald's College; but, as far as lions and all that sort of thing go, it is a wonderful piece of art.

For some years Dr. Dobell has been editing Reports on the progress of practical and scientific medicine**, but the extent of the subject has been found somewhat embarrassing, and he has now resolved to confine the annual Reports to a specific department, that of chest disease. The first annual volume has just appeared, and appears to be a very complete and valuable work of reference.

Major Clifford, Professor of Military Law at the Staff College, has composed a classified *précis* of the Mutiny Act and Articles of War †† for the use of military students, which presents in a brief form all the necessary information on the subject.

The *Musical Tales and Sketches* translated from the German of Elise Polko ‡‡ are of rather a sentimental and vapoury cast, and the mixture of biography and fiction is very confusing.

* *The Life Assurer's Handbook and Key to Life Assurance*. By George Clifford. Eifingham Wilson.

† *A Handybook for Guardians of the Poor*. By G. C. Bartley. Chapman & Hall.

‡ *A Month in Mayo*. By George Rooper. R. Hardwicke.

§ *First Steps in Geography*. Daldy, Isbister, & Co.

|| *The Smallest Prayer-Book*. Oxford University Press.

¶ *Debrett's Illustrated House of Commons*. Dean & Son.

Debrett's Illustrated Peerage and Baronetage. Dean & Son.

** *Annual Reports on Diseases of the Chest*. Under the direction of Horace Dobell, M.D. Vol. I. 1874-5. Smith, Elder, & Co.

†† *Précis of the Provisions of the Mutiny Act and Articles of War*. Compiled by Major Clifford, Professor of Military Administration and Law, Staff College. W. Mitchell & Co.

‡‡ *Musical Tales, Phantasms, and Sketches*. From the German of Elise Polko. Samuel Tinsley.

NOTICE.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return rejected Communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

THE UNITED STATES.

The Annual Subscription to the SATURDAY REVIEW, including postage to any part of the United States, is £1 10s. 4d., or \$7 58 gold, and may be forwarded direct to the Publisher, Mr. DAVID JONES, at the Office, 38 Southampton Street, Strand, or to Mr. B. F. STEVENS, American Agency, 4 Trafalgar Square, London. International Money Orders can be sent from any office in the United States, and Subscriptions, payable in advance, may commence at any time.

* *About My Father's Business*. By Thomas Archer. Henry S. King & Co.

† *Grace Darling; the Heroine of the Farne Islands*. By Eva Hope. Adam & Co.

‡ *The Year-Book of Facts in Science and the Arts for 1875*. Edited by C. W. Vincent. Ward, Lock, & Tyler.

§ *The Statesman's Year Book*. By Frederick Martin. Thirteenth Year. Macmillan & Co.

|| *The Boarding-out of Pauper Children in Scotland*. By John Skelton, Advocate. Blackwood.

¶ *The Christmas Mummings; and other Stories*. By Charlotte M. Yonge. Mozley & Smith.

** *Ardenmoor among the Hills*. By Samuel Abbott. With illustrations sketched, etched, &c., by the Author. Chapman & Hall.

PARIS.

Copies of the SATURDAY REVIEW may be obtained every Saturday of M. FOTHERINGHAM, 8 Rue Neuve des Capucines.

The SATURDAY REVIEW is duly registered for transmission abroad.

THE SATURDAY REVIEW

OF

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

Price 6d.

CONTENTS OF No. 1,063, MARCH 11, 1876:

The Royal Title.
Incidents of the Suez Canal Discussion. The Oxford University Bill.
The New French Ministry. American Official Scandals. Italy.
The Burials Agitation. The Slave Circular in the Lords.
Christianity between Two Foes.
Tiger-Shooting. Inaccuracy. Death in the Phial.
Undergraduates and Money-Lenders. The Fall in Silver. A Nice Irish Session.
The Canadian Militia. Crowner's Quest Law.
Bain on the Emotions and the Will.
Stubbs's Constitutional History—Vol. II. The Great Divide.
A German View of Junius. The One Fair Woman. Luthian's Dante and Beatrice.
Davillier's Life of Fortuny. Frost's Lives of the Conjurors.
Beames's Comparative Grammar of the Aryan Languages of India.
Minor Notices.

CONTENTS OF No. 1,062, MARCH 4, 1876:

End of the Carlist War.—The Army Estimates.—Idle Fellowships.—The Baltic Provinces of Russia.—Mr. Ward Hunt's Defence.—Railway Property.—The Ministerial Interregnum in France.—The Indian Tariff Act.
The Uses of Controversy.—Vivisection.—Cattaro.—Mr. Ruskin and Wakefield.—The Tree of Knowledge.—Some North-Land-Manors.—God China and Bad Pictures.—A Hole and Corner Question.—A Little-Known Dutch Painter.—The American Pedestrian.
Life of Lord Palmerston.—The Indian Alps.—Stopford Brooke's Primer of English Literature.—Mork's Excavations at the Kosterloch.—Through the Ages.—Enamelling in Ancient Gaul.—Bancroft's Native Races of the Pacific. Vol. IV.—Dyer's British Popular Customs.—French Literature.

London: Published at 38 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND, W.C.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE, London, 43 and 45 Harley Street, W.—BY SPECIAL DESIRE.—Mr. W. G. CUSINS will give a THIRD PIANOFORTE RECITAL on Wednesday, March 15, at four P.M. Tickets and Programmes may be had on application to Miss GROVE, at the College Office. E. H. PLUMPTRE, D.D., Principal.

MR. and MRS. GERMAN REED'S ENTERTAINMENT every Evening (except Thursday and Saturday) at Eight. Every Thursday and Saturday at Three. Admission 1s., 2s., 3s., and 5s.—ST. GEORGE'S HALL, Langham Place, Oxford Circus.

SHAKESPEARE, TENNYSON, DICKENS (Drama, Poetry, Humour).—Mr. GEORGE VANDENHOFF'S FIRST LITERARY, DRAMATIC, POETIC, and HUMOROUS ENTERTAINMENT (as given by him to audiences numbered by thousands in the United States) will take place at Langham Hall, Great Portland Street, Monday Evening, 13th instant. Commence at Eight o'clock. Carriages may be ordered at Ten. SENATE PALACE, BAR.—Quod magis ad vos pertinet, et neque malum est. ELUCUTORY INSTRUCTION.—Mr. GEORGE VANDENHOFF, 101 Gower Street, Bedford Square.

HERR CHRISTIAN WILBERG'S WORKS.—Mr. THOMPSON has the honour to announce that he will open an EXHIBITION of CHRISTIAN WILBERG'S WATER COLOUR DRAWINGS and SKETCHES in OIL of Italian subjects, including "A View in Venice," the property of Her Majesty the Queen, at BURLINGTON GALLERY, 191 Piccadilly, on Monday, March 13. Admission, including Catalogue, 1s. From 10 to 6.

THE SOCIETY of PAINTERS in WATER COLOURS.—THE FOURTEENTH WINTER EXHIBITION will CLOSE on Wednesday next, March 15, 5 Pall Mall East. Ten till Five. Admission 1s. ALFRED D. FRIPP, Secretary.

DORÉ'S GREAT PICTURE of "CHRIST LEAVING THE PRÆTORIUM," with "Dream of Pilate's Wife," "The Night of the Crucifixion," "La Vierge," "Soldiers of the Cross," "Christian Martyrs," "Gaming Table," &c.—DORÉ GALLERY, 35 New Bond Street. Ten to Six. Admission, 1s.

INSTITUTION of NAVAL ARCHITECTS.—THE ANNUAL MEETINGS for 1876 of the INSTITUTION of NAVAL ARCHITECTS will take place on Thursday, Friday, and Saturday, 6th, 7th, and 8th April next. They will be held, by Permission of the Council of the Society of Arts, in the Hall of that Society, John Street, Adelphi.

THURSDAY, April 6.—MORNING MEETING, at 12 o'clock. OPENING ADDRESS, by the PRESIDENT (Lord Hampton). Papers and Discussions on Ships of War.

FRIDAY, April 7.—MORNING MEETING, at 12 o'clock. Papers and Discussions on Merchant Shipping.

FRIDAY, April 7.—MORNING MEETING, at 12 o'clock. Papers and Discussions on Material and Designs for Naval Construction.

FRIDAY, April 7.—MORNING MEETING, at 7 o'clock. Papers and Discussions on Screw Propulsion and Marine Engineering.

SATURDAY, April 8.—MORNING MEETING, at 12 o'clock. Concluding Meeting.

A. SEDGWICK WOOLLEY, Secretary. 30 John Street, Adelphi, London, W.C. March 10, 1876.

OWENS COLLEGE, Manchester.—THE PROFESSORSHIP of LOGIC, MENTAL, and MORAL PHILOSOPHY, and POLITICAL ECONOMY, will become VACANT in September next, in consequence of the appointment of Professor JEVONS to the Chair of Political Economy in University College, London. Candidates are invited to send applications and testimonials to the Council, under cover to the Registrar, not later than Saturday, March 25, 1876. Details as to the duties and emoluments of the office may be learnt on application to J. G. GREENWOOD, LL.D., Principal of the College. J. HOLME NICHOLSON, Registrar.

MALVERN COLLEGE. This COLLEGE contains THREE DEPARTMENTS.—THE CLASSICAL, MODERN, and PREPARATORY LOWER SCHOOL.

Boarding and Tuition, under Fourteen, £30; over Fourteen, £30. Non-Scholarholders pay an extra fee of £5. Special advantages for Sons of Clergymen and Home Boarders. For further information, apply to the Rev. ARTHUR FAIRB, M.A., Head-Master, late Fellow and Tutor of New College, Oxford.

CHELTEMHAM COLLEGE.—TWELVE SCHOLARSHIPS. Eight £40; Four £20. Election, Second Week in May.—Apply to the SECRETARY, the College, Cheltenham.

RADLEY COLLEGE SCHOLARSHIPS.—AN ELECTION to the SEWELL SCHOLARSHIP, value £55, and FOUR other ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS, Two of £50, One of £30, and One of £20, will be held on Wednesday, May 10, 1876. They are all tenable for Four years.—Apply to the BURSAR, Radley College, Abingdon.

HURSLEY, WINCHESTER.—A. M. HEATHCOTE, B.A. Oxford, prepares BOYS, between Seven and Twelve, for Public Schools. Terms, 100 and 120 Guineas. Holidays as at Winchester College. After Easter he can receive Two or Three Boys.—Address, Home Close, Hursley, Winchester.

WESTGATE-ON-SEA, Kent.—W. THORNTON BULLOCK, B.A., Oxon. (Classical Honours, Mods.), for Eight years Assistant-Master at Temple Grove, prepares BOYS for the Public Schools.—Terms, &c., on application.

HOLMESDALE HOUSE, near BURGESS HILL, Sussex.—SEYMOUR MCC. HILL, M.A., Oxon, formerly Scholar of Balliol College, prepares BOYS for the Public Schools. Terms, 80 Guineas.—Further particulars on application.

THE Rev. H. HAYMAN, D.D., ex-Head-Master of Rugby, has a vacancy for ONE PUPIL, at Easter, at Aldingham, Ulverston, sea-coast of Lancashire. Ample grounds, excellent air, sea bathing, &c.

FOLKESTONE.—MR. W. J. JEAFFRESON, M.A. (Scholar) Oxon, assisted by a Cambridge Honourman and a competent staff of Teachers, prepares for the Universities and for all Competitive Examinations. Pupils successful at the last Nine Examinations of the Line.

GERMANY.—High-class EDUCATION at the ROYAL COLLEGES, Cassel (attended by the Sons of the Crown Prince of Germany), with thorough German, French, and English Private Tuition by Resident Graduates, and a refined English home. Delightful neighbourhood of Wilhelmshöhe, the Aue Park, and the Valley of the Fulda. Prospectus, with highest references. Terms, 70 to 90 Guineas, inclusive.—Address, Dr. SAUER, M.A., Cassel (who will be in England in April).

THE COUNCIL of the GIRLS' PUBLIC DAY SCHOOL COMPANY, Limited, will shortly appoint HEAD-MISTRESSES for High Schools to be established at Brighton and Gateshead-on-Tyne. Salary in each case £50 per annum, with a Capitation Fee of 10s. per Pupil over one hundred. Applications, with copies of testimonials, to be sent by April 15 next to the SECRETARY of the Company, 113 Brompton Road, S.W., from whom further information may be had.

TO LADIES of POSITION.—As SECRETARY or TRAVELLING COMPANION, a Gentlewoman by birth and education. A good Reader and Amanuensis, and experienced Traveller. Excellent references.—Address, A. B., 41 Lansdowne Crescent, Malvern.

EVENING EMPLOYMENT WANTED by a YOUNG MAN, Three or Four Evenings a week, addressing Envelopes, Circulars, &c., or to assist a Tradesman with his Books, or any similar capacity.—Address, G. K., 8 Canal Terrace, Camden Town, N.W.

PRIVATE LIBRARIES, and those of Colleges and Literary and Scientific Institutions, CATALOGUED and ARRANGED by W. H. AYLOTT, Librarian. Reference will be given to parties by whom he has been engaged.—Address, 23 Cheapside, E.C.

ARCHITECTURAL PUPIL.—A YOUNG ARCHITECT, in practice about Seven years, principally in Ecclesiastical and Domestic Work, has a Vacancy for a PUPIL. Moderate premium required.—Address, A. B. C., care of Messrs. Frank Smith & Co., 13 Southampton Street, Strand, W.C.

AGRICULTURAL and ESTATE PUPIL.—A GENTLEMAN, residing in Hampshire, will have a VACANCY after the 24th of March. A comfortable home, with unusual facilities for acquiring knowledge in Agriculture in all its branches, including the Cultivation of Hops, and the Breeding and Feeding of Stock, is offered; also the Management of Landed Estates. Highest references given and expected. For full particulars and terms, which will include the keep of a horse, apply to CHARLES E. CURTIS, Deans, Iarrington, Alton, Hants. The Advertiser having an Australian connexion is able to offer unusual advantages to young Gentlemen wishing to Emigrate.

BOURNEMOUTH.—To be LET, for a long or short time, Furnished or Unfurnished, a private HOUSE, in the best situation. Three Reception, Seven Bed Rooms. Stabling, &c.—Apply to E. H., Hurworth, Bournemouth, Hants.

THE LADIES' VICTORIA CLUB (under Distinguished Patronage) for Ladies only, is NOW OPEN, at 25 Regent Street (corner of Jermyn Street), W. Every convenience of a private house. Terms, £25 a year; Family Tickets, £25. Prospectuses and particulars may be had on application to the LADY MANAGER.

INFANT ORPHAN ASYLUM, WANSTEAD. Patron.—HER MAJESTY THE QUEEN.

There are now nearly 500 fatherless children in this Institution, many mere infants. 2519 Orphans of persons once in prosperity, gathered together from all parts of the British dominions, have been admitted. Thirty will be Elected in May next. Forms for nominating Candidates should be applied for at once, as the list will be closed on the 5th inst. Subscriptions and Donations, upon which the Institution is mainly dependent, are earnestly requested. Bankers.—Messrs. WILLIAMS, DEACON, & Co., 20 Birch Lane, E.C. Offices: 100 Fleet Street, E.C. HENRY W. GREEN, Secretary.

HYDROPATHY.—SUDBROOK PARK, Richmond Hill. Physician.—Dr. EDWARD LANE, M.A., M.D., Editor. For Invalids and those requiring rest and change. Turkish Bathing on the premises. Private entrance to Richmond Park.

OVERLAND ROUTE and SUEZ CANAL.—Under Contract for the conveyance of the Mails to the Mediterranean, India, China, Japan, and Australia. The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company despatch their Steamers from Southampton, via the Suez Canal, every Thursday, from Venice every Friday, and from Brindisi, with the Overland Mails, every Monday.—Offices, 122 Leadenhall Street, E.C., and 25 Cockspur Street, S.W.

BRIGHTON.—BEDFORD HOTEL.—Facing Sea and Esplanade. Near the West Pier. Central and quiet. Long established. Suites of Rooms. Spacious Coffee-room for Ladies and Gentlemen. Sea-Water Service in the Hotel. F. O. RICKARDS, Manager.

E. DENT & CO., 61 Strand, and 34 Royal Exchange, Manufacturers of CHRONOMETERS, WATCHES, CLOCKS, &c. (Catalogues free) to Her Majesty, H.R.H. the Prince of Wales and Foreign Sovereigns. Makers of the Great Westminster Clock, and of the New Standard Clock of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich. Sole addresses, 61 Strand, 34 Royal Exchange, and Factory, Gerrard Street, London.

THE PERFECT SUBSTITUTE for SILVER.—The real NICKEL SILVER, introduced more than Thirty Years ago by WILLIAM S. BURTON, when plated by the patent process of Messrs. Elkington & Co., is the very best article next to silver that can be used as such, either usefully or ornamentally, as by no test can it be distinguished from real silver.

PATTERNS:	Fiddle or Old Silver.	Bead or Thread.	King's or Shell.
Table Forks or Spoons.....	per dozen	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Desert ditto ditto.....	1 0.	1 1.	1 2.
Tea Spoons.....	1 2.	1 9.	1 11.
	11.	1.	1.

These are as strongly plated and in every respect equal to what other houses are selling as their first quality at very much higher prices. A second quality of Fiddle Patterns.—Table Spoons and Forks, 25s. per dozen; Desert, 17s. per dozen; Tea Spoons, 15s. per dozen; Tea and Coffee Sets, from £3 15s. to £25; Dish Covers, 21s. to £24; Corner Dishes, £7 10s. to £15 10s.; the Set of 40; Warmers, £7 2s. 6d. to £15 10s.; Biscuit Boxes, 16s. to £5 10s.; Cret and Liqueur Frames, &c., at proportionate Prices.

The largest Stock in existence of Plated Desert Knives and Forks, and Fish-eating Knives, Forks, and Carvers. All kinds of Replating done by the Patent Process. WILLIAM S. BURTON, General Furnishing Ironmonger, by appointment, to H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, sends a CATALOGUE, post free, containing upwards of 800 Illustrations of his unrivalled Stock, with Lists of Prices and Plans of the 20 large Show-rooms, 39 Oxford Street, W.; 1, 1A, 2, 3, and 4 Newman Street; 4, 5, and 6 Perry's Place; and 1 Newman Yard; Manufacturers, 84 Newman Street, and Newman Mews, London, W. The cost of delivering Goods to the most distant parts of the United Kingdom by Railway is trifling. WILLIAM S. BURTON will always undertake delivery at a small fixed rate.

TO the ELECTORS of MANCHESTER.

GENTLEMEN.—It now becomes my duty to tender my most earnest and heartfelt thanks to those who have shown unsurpassed energy and zeal on behalf of the Conservative cause during the Election.

Within fifteen days after my first introduction to the Constituency I have received One Thousand more Votes than had ever been recorded in favour of any Candidate for the representation of your City. I feel confident that after longer intercourse with you the result would have been more in accord with your real judgment.

I have no doubt that by earnest devotion and resolute perseverance, the Conservatives of Manchester will, at an early date, regain the seat which has been temporarily lost.

With renewed thanks to those numerous friends who have given me such generous support,

I remain, Gentlemen,

Your faithful Servant,

Manchester, February 18, 1876.

FRANCIS S. POWELL.

FURNISH YOUR HOUSE or APARTMENTS
THROUGHOUT ON MOEDER'S HIRE SYSTEM. The original, best, and most liberal. Cash Prices; no Extra Charge for time given. Large, useful Stock to select from. Illustrated price Catalogue, with Terms, post free.—249 and 250 Tottenham Court Road. Established 1862.

LAMPS, BRONZES, and CANDLES.—BARCLAY & SON,
138 Regent Street, London.
LAMP MAKERS and WAX CHANDLERS to Her Majesty the Queen and H.R.H. the Prince of Wales.
Have now on view their new Stock of MODERATOR and KEROSENE TABLE and SUSPENSION LAMPS, in real Japanese, Satsuma, and other artistic Foreign and Native Wares.
ROMAN BRONZES, a choice selection of Models from the Antique Statues of the Naples Museum, the Vatican, &c. CANDLES of all descriptions.

HARLAND & FISHER,
33 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND, W.C.
ART DECORATORS.
CHURCH and DOMESTIC DECORATION.
PAINTED MAJOLICA TILES. EMBROIDERY.
PAPER-HANGINGS and ART FURNITURE.

CLARK'S PATENT STEEL NOISELESS SHUTTERS,
Self-Cooling, Fire and Thief Proof, can be adapted to any Window or other Opening. Prospectuses free.—CLARK & CO., Sole Patentees, Bathbone Place, W.; Paris, Manchester, Liverpool, and Dublin.

NOTICE.—WILLS' BEST BIRD'S-EYE. Every Packet of this TOBACCO will in future be lined with tin-foil, thus perfectly preserving its condition and flavour.—W. D. & H. O. WILLS. January 1876.

CASH'S
KNITTED ROUGH TOWELS.

Imitations are often offered, but each of these Patent Towels has a Tape Label, with the Name of the Firm, "J. & J. CASH," woven upon it, and none are genuine without.

WATERPROOF GOODS.
EDMISTON & SON
(From 5 Charing Cross).
SOLE MAKERS of the POCKET SIPHONIA (weight 12 ozs.) price from 42s.
WATERPROOF TWEED COATS, designed specially for the CLERGY, from 25s.
LADIES' WATERPROOF TWEED CLOAKS.
FISHING STOCKINGS.
BED SHEETS. ELASTIC STOCKINGS.

EDMISTON & SON,
14 COCKSPUR STREET, FILL MALL, LONDON, S.W.
(Opposite the Haymarket).

SHAVING WITHOUT SOAP or WATER.—LLOYD'S
EUXESIS renders the operation of shaving perfectly agreeable to the most irritable skin, which it leaves cool, smooth, and refreshed; water, soap-boxes and other inconveniences are entirely dispensed with. The Euxesis is sold in collapsible tubes, price 1s. 6d. and 3s. each, by all Chemists and Perfumers, and by the Sole Manufacturer, A. LLOYD, Widow or A. S. Lloyd.

3 Spur Street, Leicester Square. N.B.—Be careful to observe that the genuine Euxesis bears the words "Prepared only by his Widow" in red ink across labels. Ask for the Widow's.

KINAHAN'S .LL. WHISKY.
This celebrated and most delicious old mellow Spirit is the very CREAM of IRISH WHISKIES. It is unrivalled, perfectly pure, and more wholesome than the finest Cognac Brandy. Note the Red Seal, Pink Label, and Cork branded "Kinahan's .LL. Whisky." Wholesale Depot, 30 GREAT TITCHFIELD STREET, OXFORD STREET, W.

THE "SPÉCIALITÉ" SHERRY.
"Free from acidity and heat."—British Medical Journal.

THE "SATURDAY REVIEW" writes:
"We must confess, however, that some of the testimonials.....go far to prove that this Sherry must be in some ways really a very remarkable wine."

JOHN WOOLCOTT, Esq., F.R.C.S., Founder of the Kent
County Ophthalmic Hospital, writes: "I enclose a cheque for your account, and I take this opportunity to testify concerning the excellent quality of your dry 'SPÉCIALITÉ' SHERRY. I have been a great sufferer with gout, and for a long time I have been in search of a light Sherry, free from acid, which I might take and feel that it was doing me good instead of harm, and such I found your wine, and have recommended it extensively to my patients in consequence."—Maitland House, Parade, Tunbridge Wells.

IT has ATTAINED and DESERVES a GREAT MEDICAL
REPUTATION.—Medical Record.

TO the MEAL of a PATIENT SUFFERING from DYS-
PEPSIA it would be VALUABLE.—Medical Times.

THE PRICE of this long looked-for, wholesome, and most
agreeable Wine is based upon the "CASH PAYMENT SYSTEM" strictly, hence its low price, 30s. Dozen, 40 Octave Cask, 21s. Quarter Cask. Railway Carriage paid.

FELTOW & SONS, Established Sixty-one years, Sole Pro-
prietors and Importers. Chief Establishment—Albion Street, W. (Removed from Conduit Street). City Offices—5 Union Court, Old Broad Street; and 80 Bishopsgate Street, E.C. Branch Offices—at Manchester, Brighton, Bristol, and Plymouth.

E. LAZENBY & SON'S PICKLES, SAUCES, and CON-
DIMENTS.—E. LAZENBY & SON, Sole Proprietors of the celebrated Receipts, and Manufacturers of the Pickles, Sauces, and Condiments, so long and favourably distinguished by their Name, beg to remind the Public that every article prepared by them is guaranteed as entirely Unadulterated.—39 Wigmore Street, Cavendish Square (late 6 Edwards Street, Portman Square), and 15 Trinity Street, London, S.E.

HARVEY'S SAUCE.—Caution.—The Admirers of this
celebrated Sauce are particularly requested to observe that each Bottle, prepared by E. LAZENBY & SON, bears the Label used so many years, signed "Elizabeth Lazenby."

LIFE ASSURANCES, &c.

LAW LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY, Fleet Street, London.

Invested assets on December 31, 1875 £3,441,545
Income for the past year 485,518
Amount paid on death to December last 10,743,164
Reversionary Bonus allotted for the five years ended 31st
December 1874 663,104
Aggregate Reversionary Bonuses hitherto allotted 5,523,138

The Expenses of Management (including Commission) are about 4 per cent. on the Annual Income.

ATTENTION is especially called to the New (REVISED and REDUCED) Rates of Premium recently adopted by the Office.

The Rates for YOUNG LIVES will be found MATERIALLY LOWER than HERETOFORE.

Forms of proposal, &c., will be sent on application to the Office.

HAND-IN-HAND INSURANCE SOCIETY.

Instituted A.D. 1696.

The OLDEST INSURANCE OFFICE in the World.

The ONLY MUTUAL OFFICE in the Kingdom for both FIRE and LIFE.

There being NO SHAREHOLDERS, ALL PROFITS are DIVIDED AMONGST the INSURED.

NO Policy Holder is subject to any PERSONAL LIABILITY.

Accumulated Fund £1,574,118

Annual Income 217,374

New Bridge Street, Blackfriars.

THE SCOTTISH IMPERIAL INSURANCE COMPANY.

LONDON—3 KING WILLIAM STREET, E.C.

GLASGOW—151 WEST GEORGE STREET.

For FIRE, LIFE, and ANNUITIES, at Home and Abroad.

Reduced rates of Life Premium for foreign residence.

H. AMBROSE SMITH, Secretary and Actuary.

IMPERIAL FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY.

Established 1803.

1 OLD BROAD STREET, E.C. and 16 & 17 FILL MALL, S.W.

CAPITAL, £1,600,000. PAID-UP and INVESTED, £700,000.

E. COZENS SMITH, General Manager.

EAGLE INSURANCE COMPANY,

79 FILL MALL. For Lives only. Established 1807.

Reports, Prospectuses, and Forms may be had at the Office or from any of the Company's Agents, post free.

GEORGE HUMPHREYS, Actuary and Secretary.

LONDON and SOUTHWARK FIRE and LIFE

INSURANCE.

Chairman—HENRY ASTE, Esq.

CHIEF OFFICE—73 and 74 KING WILLIAM STREET, E.C.

PHENIX FIRE OFFICE,

LOMBARD STREET and CHANCERY CROSS, LONDON.—ESTABLISHED 1782.

Prompt and Liberal Loss Settlements.

Insurances effected in all parts of the World.

GEORGE WM. LOVELL, } Secretaries.
JOHN J. BROOMFIELD, }

ONE MILLION STERLING has been Paid as COMPEN-

SATION for DEATH and INJURIES caused by Accidents of all kinds by the

RAILWAY PASSENGERS' ASSURANCE COMPANY.

HON. A. KINNAIRD, M.P., Chairman.

Apply to the Clerks at the Railway Stations, the Local Agents, or 64 Cornhill and 10 Regent Street, London.

WILLIAM J. VIAN, Secretary.

THE AGRA BANK, Limited.—Established in 1833.

CAPITAL, £1,000,000.

HEAD OFFICE—NICHOLAS LANE, LOMBARD STREET, LONDON.

BRANCHES in Edinburgh, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Kurrachee, Agra, Lahore, Shanghai, Hong Kong.

Current Accounts are kept at the Head Office on the Terms customary with London Bankers.

Interest allowed when the Credit Balance does not fall below £100.

Deposits received for fixed periods on the following terms, viz.:

At 5 per cent. per annum, subject to 12 months' Notice of Withdrawal.

For shorter periods Deposits will be received on terms to be agreed upon.

Bills issued at the current exchange of the day on any of the Branches of the Bank, free of extra charge; and Approved Bills purchased or sent for collection.

Sales and Purchases effected in British and Foreign Securities, in East India Stock and Loans, and the safe custody of the same undertaken.

Interest drawn and Army, Navy, and Civil Pay and Pensions realized.

Every other description of Banking business and Agency Agency, British and Indian, transacted.

J. THOMSON, Chairman.

IN CONSEQUENCE OF SPURIOUS IMITATIONS OF**LEA & PERRINS' SAUCE,**

which are calculated to deceive the Public, LEA & PERRINS have adopted a NEW

LABEL, bearing their Signature, "LEA & PERRINS," which will be placed on every Bottle

of WORCESTERSHIRE SAUCE after this date, and without which mark or Signature, Sold

Wholesale by the Proprietors, Worcester; or by Messrs. Blackwell, London; and Export Olives

generally. Retail, by Dealers in Sauces throughout the World.—November 1874.

GRATEFUL—COMFORTING.**EPPS'S COCOA.**

"By a thorough knowledge of the natural laws which govern the operations of

digestion and nutrition, and by a careful application of the fine properties of

well-selected Cocoa, Mr. Epps has prepared our breakfast tables with a delicately

flavoured beverage which may save us many heavy doctors' bills. It is by the

judicious use of such articles of diet that a constitution may be gradually built up

until strong enough to resist every tendency to disease. Hundreds of subtle maladi-

es are floating around us ready to attack wherever there is a weak point. We may

escape many a fatal shaft by keeping ourselves well fortified with pure blood and a

properly nourished frame."—Civil Service Gazette.

JAMES EPPS & CO., Homoeopathic Chemists, London.

FRY'S CARACAS COCOA.

"A most delicious and valuable article."—Standard.

"The Caracas Cocoa of such choice quality."—Food, Water, and Air, Edited by Dr. HASSALL.

"NINE PRIZE MEDALS awarded to J. S. FRY & SONS.

INDIGESTION.—MORSON'S PREPARATIONS of PEP-

SINE. See Name on Label. Highly recommended by the Medical Profession. Sold in

Bottles as WINE, at 3s. 6d., and 9s.; as LOZENGES, 2s. 6d. and 4s. 6d.; as GLOBULES, 2s. 6d.,

and 6s. 6d.; and as POWDER, in 1oz. Bottles, at 3s. each.—By all Chemists, and the Manufac-

turers, T. MORSON & SON, Southampton Row, Russell Square, London.

DINNEFORD'S PURE FLUID MAGNESIA.—

The best Remedy for ACIDITY of the STOMACH, HEARTBURN, HEADACHE,

GOUT, and INDIGESTION, and the safest Aperient for Delicate Constitutions, Ladies,

Children, and Infants. Of all Chemists.

FROM the DANUBE to the NILE, PARR'S LIFE PILLS

are used by Thousands. Elles fortifient les faibles, rendent la santé aux malades, et font du bien dans tous les cas. Elles se vendent chez tous les Pharmaciens et Droguistes en Angle-

terre et dans toute l'Europe.

AGENTS POUR LE LEVANT.

Constantinople.... Mr. Delis Suida, Pharmacie et Droguerie Centrales, 16, 15, 20 Rue

Yeni-Djoudi.

Smyrne..... Mr. N. Perigian, Pharm.

Caire..... Mr. Nardi, Pharm.

Alexandrie..... Mr. Gallet, Pharm.

Bucharest..... Mr. Eitel, Pharm. de la Cour, et Mr. Zurner.

Athènes..... Mr. Olimpius, Pharm.

Belgrade..... Mr. J. Dilbert, Pharm.

DR. LOCOCK'S PULMONIC WAFERS, in Colds, Coughs, Throat Affections, Bronchitis, and Irritation of the Air Passages of the Lungs, give instant relief. They stop a cough in a few minutes. Of all Druggists, at 1s. 1d., 2s. 6d., 4s. 6d., and 11s. per Box.

WORMS in **DOGS** are promptly removed by one dose of **NALDIRE'S POWDERS**—DOGS readily take them.

"Keeping, as I do, so many valuable mastiffs—possibly as many as any breeder in England—I have used 'Naldire's Powders,' and consider them an effectual, speedy, and safe remedy for worms in dogs." *—M. B. WYNN.*

NALDIRE'S POWDERS

Are Sold in Packets, 2s., 3s. 6d., and 5s., by all Chemists; and by **BARCLAY & SONS**, 95 Farringdon Street, London.

BOOKS, &c.

MUDIE'S SELECT LIBRARY.—BOOKS for all READERS. See **MUDIE'S LIBRARY CIRCULAR** for MARCH. Postage free.

MUDIE'S SELECT LIBRARY.—CHEAP BOOKS.—See **MUDIE'S CLEARANCE CATALOGUE** for MARCH. This Catalogue contains: The Life of the Prince Consort, Vol. I.; Kinglake's *Crimes*, Vol. V.; Tennyson's *Queen Mary*; The Greville Memoirs; The Way We Live Now, by Anthony Trollope; Signa, by "Ouida"; Miss Ansel, by Miss Thackeray; Three Feathers, by W. Black; Valentine and her Brother, by Mrs. Oliphant; Wild Hyacinth; Fated to be Free; The Chronicles of Dustypore; The Goldsmith's Wife, by W. H. Ainsworth; Number Seventeen, by Henry Kingsley; and nearly Two Thousand other Popular Books at the lowest current Prices.

MUDIE'S SELECT LIBRARY.—NOTICE.—All the Books in Circulation or on Sale at **MUDIE'S SELECT LIBRARY** may also be obtained, with the least possible delay, by all Subscribers to **MUDIE'S MANCHESTER LIBRARY**, **BARTON ARCADE**, MANCHESTER (one Minute's walk from the Exchange). Mudie's Select Library, Limited, New Oxford Street. City Office, 3 King Street, Cheapside.

THE UNITED LIBRARIES, 307 Regent Street, W. Subscriptions from One Guinea to any amount, according to the supply required. All the best New Books, English, French, and German, immediately on publication. Prospectuses, with Lists of New Publications, gratis and post free. *A Clearance Catalogue of Surplus Books offered for Sale at greatly Reduced Prices may also be had free on application. **BOOTH'S, CHURTON'S, HODGKINSON'S, and SAUNDERS & OTLEY'S** United Libraries, 307 Regent Street, near the Polytechnic.

THE SATURDAY REVIEW.—The following NUMBERS of **THE SATURDAY REVIEW** are required, for which 6d. each will be given, viz.: 10, 74, 75, 76, 81, 85, 91, 235, 256, and 611 (clean copies)—at the Office, 38 Southampton Street, Strand, W.C.

MISS MOLLY. By **BEATRICE MAY BUTT**. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. EXTRACTS FROM REVIEWS.

"Miss Molly" is a charming heroine. *—Standard.*
"Miss Molly" is as sprightly and pleasant as a beetle's name. *—Athenaeum.*
"Miss Molly" is not only a charming little story, but we wish to accept it as an earnest of some future work of fiction from the same pen. *—Civil Service Gazette.*
"Miss Molly" is freshness itself—merry, mischievous, tender, full of sympathy; and she infects every one around her with her irresistible good-humour and pretty self-will. *—Scotsman.*
"An admirably written story." *—Leeds Mercury.*
"This is an extremely fresh, delicate, and charming sketch. We cannot praise too warmly the reserve, purity, tenderness, and pathos of this admirable story." *—Aberdeen Journal.*
"A good story." *—Dundee Advertiser.*

WILLIAM BLACKWOOD & SONS, Edinburgh and London.

RULES FOR A SPELLING BEE.

Fcp. 8vo. cloth, 1s.; post free, 1s. 2d.

NUTTALL'S SPELLING BEE GUIDE (WARNE'S EDITION): a Repertory of Five Thousand Difficult Words, with their Phonetic Spellings and Meanings; also Rules for Conducting a Spelling Bee. The Spelling Bee Guide is condensed from "Nuttall's Standard Pronouncing Dictionary," has the Phonetic Spelling, and is distinct from any other work of a similar title.

FREDERICK WARNE & CO., Bedford Street, Strand.

THE POET KEATS.

KEATS'S POETICAL WORKS. Reprinted from the Early Editions, with Memoir, Explanatory Notes, &c.

THE LANDOWNE POETS EDITION, with Full-page Illustrations, cloth gilt, gilt edges, 3s. 6d.; morocco, handsomely bound, 5s.

THE CHANDOS CLASSICS EDITION, cloth gilt, 2s.; stiff wrapper, 1s. 6d.

FREDERICK WARNE & CO., Bedford Street, Strand.

THE CHANDOS LIBRARY EDITION OF

PEPYS'S DIARY AND CORRESPONDENCE contains all the matter of the Braybrooke Original Edition. With a Preface by JOHN TIMMS. With 7 Steel Portraits arranged as a Frontispiece, full index, &c. 3s. 6d.

FREDERICK WARNE & CO., Bedford Street, Strand.

Just published, 8vo. 31s. 6d.

LOCUS STANDI REPORTS: Cases decided during the Sessions 1874-4-5, by the Court of Referees on Private Bills. By **FREDERICK CLIFFORD** and **A. G. RICKARDS**, Esq., Barristers-at-Law (containing Clifford and Stephen's Reports). London: **BUTTERWORTH'S**, Fleet Street.

Ready, each 1s.

RUGBY SCHOOL.—Remarks and Judgment of Vice-Chancellor Mallins in Dr. Hayman's Case, with Preface by J. MARSHALL HAYMAN. Extracts from Minute Book of Governing Body, with Comments, Edited by S. R. TOWNSEND MATYER. **ARTHUR H. MOXON**, 21 Paternoster Row. And all Booksellers.

MR. EDWARDS ON THE DOMESTIC USE OF FUEL.

Royal 8vo. amply illustrated.

SMOKY CHIMNEYS. Seventh Edition, 3s. 6d.

OUR DOMESTIC FIREPLACES. New Edition, 12s.

USE OF FUEL in COOKING. 5s.

OBSERVATIONS on FIRE-PLACES, &c. 6d.

IMPROVED FIRE-PLACES. 1s.

London: **LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO.**, Paternoster Row.

Each post free for Six Stamps.

"**THE FARMER**" PAMPHLETS.

Now ready, No. III.

OUR MEAT SUPPLY. By **JAMES HOWARD**, Bedford. With Preface and Statistical Tables.

No. I. ROOT CROPS as AFFECTED by SOIL, MANURE, and CLIMATE. By **DR. A. VOELCKER**, F.R.S. Re-ed. before the Farmers' Club.

No. II. THE TREASURES of the AIR, the SOIL, and the SUBSOIL. By **J. J. MOUL**, Tiptree Hall. Read before the Farmers' Club. Address, T. W. HANFORD, Publisher, "Farmer" Office, Salisbury Square, Fleet Street, London, E.C.

Nearly ready, small 4to.

LAYS of IND. By **ALEPH CHEEM**. The sale in Bombay of several editions of the two series of these famous lays (historically illustrative of Anglo-Indian life), marks the extensive popularity they have gained in India. The present edition combines the two series in one volume, with additional Lays, and is most handsomely got up, illustrated with very numerous Woodcuts, after Drawings by the Author and others. Bombay: **THACKER, VINING, & CO.** London: **W. THACKER & CO.**, 47 Newgate Street.

THE FORTNIGHTLY REVIEW

For MARCH.

CONTENTS:

DISESTABLISHMENT. By R. W. DALE.
THE UPPER ENGADINE. By Hon. LIONEL A. TOLLEMACHE.
M. TAINE'S NEW WORK. By the EDITOR.
THE CATHOLIC PERIL IN AMERICA. By FRANCIS ARBOTT.
THE WEDDAS. By B. F. HARTSHORN.
ON EXAMINATIONS. By Professor FOWLER.
A NATIONAL TRAINING TO ARMS. By Sir H. HAVELOCK, Bart., M.P.
HOME AND FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

CHAPMAN & HALL, 193 PICCADILLY.

LORD MACAULAY'S BIOGRAPHY AND EPISTOLARY REMAINS.

On Thursday, the 30th instant, in 2 vols. 8vo. price 36s.

THE LIFE and LETTERS of LORD MACAULAY. By his Nephew, **GEORGE O. TREVELYAN, M.P.** London, **LONGMANS & CO.**

A LADY'S TOUR IN THE HIMALAYAS.

In One Volume, imperial 8vo. with Illustrations from Original Drawings made on the spot by the Authoress, comprising Ten full-page Plates in Chromolithography and 150 Wood Engravings, price 42s. cloth.

THE INDIAN ALPS and How we Crossed them; a Narrative of Two Years' Residence in the Himalayas, and Two Months' Tour into the Interior, towards Kinchinjunga and Mount Everest. By a **LADY PIONEER.**

"It is scarcely too much to say that the narrative of the Lady Pioneer equals in interest the descriptive portions of Dr. Hooker's delightful 'Himalayan Journals.' The authoress's descriptions of sunrises and sunsets and other aerial phenomena of the Himalaya are singularly felicitous. The volume is illustrated, also, with numberless clever little woodcuts and charming chromolithographs from her own sketches, which pertinently interpret her text in all its changing moods—from grave to gay, from humorous to romantic." *The Times.*

"Turning over the pages of this sumptuous volume with growing delight, we discover that the frontispiece study of all who are interested in the subject of ocean currents." *—Iron.*

"Here we have the vulnerable point of Dr. Carpenter's modified resuscitation of the old theory of oceanic circulation clearly indicated, and a home-thrust of clear, sound reasoning fairly delivered through it. As this point is the very heart of Dr. Carpenter's contribution to the subject, the thrust is fatal. It is followed by further and equally clear and able discussion of the details of Dr. Carpenter's arguments, and of the theories of Maury, Huxford, Herschel, &c. This Chapter XX. of Mr. Jordan's book is really excellent, and worthy of careful reading." *Quarterly Journal of Science.*

"The Reports received from Her Majesty's ship *Challenger* have confirmed the views expressed in this Work with a distinctness exceeding the most sanguine anticipations of the Author." *Quarterly Journal of Science.*

London, **LONGMANS & CO.**

THE OCEAN, its Tides and Currents and their Causes. By **WILLIAM LEIGHTON JORDAN, F.R.G.S.**

"A very valuable addition to the list of works advancing our comical knowledge." *Scientific Review.*
"The Author of this book gives us a new Principle. Still, the book is the production of a man thoroughly well up in his own subject, and many others collateral with it. It is one that may be safely commended to the study of all who are interested in the subject of ocean currents." *—Iron.*

"The Reports received from Her Majesty's ship *Challenger* have confirmed the views expressed in this Work with a distinctness exceeding the most sanguine anticipations of the Author." *Quarterly Journal of Science.*

London, **LONGMANS & CO.**

New and enlarged Edition, in post 8vo. pp. 536, price 10s. 6d.

QUICKSANDS; or Prevalent Fallacies in Belief and Worship Pointed Out, with their Remedies. By the Rev. **STEPHEN JENNER, M.A.**

"There are but few books published since Paley's *Evidences* which we would recommend in preference to this masterly volume." *—Hour.*

"The form of analysis in it is something new to us since the days of Whately's *Cutions for the Times*." *—Standard.*

London, **LONGMANS & CO.**

The 4th Edition, in small 4to. price 2s. 6d.

VIS INERTLE at the POST-OFFICE: Mr. Herring and the Telegraph Department; Present Position of the Question.

London, **LONGMANS & CO.**

MESSRS. LOW, MARSTON, & CO.'S NEW BOOKS.

Now ready.

"Warranted not dry reading." *—German Prospectus.*

TO the VICTORIA FALLS of the ZAMBESI: a Book of Sport and Adventure in the South African Bush. By **EDWARD MOHR**. Translated by N. D'ANVERS. 1 vol. demy 8vo. with numerous Wood Engravings, 4 fine Chromo-lithographs, and a Map, cloth extra, 31s.

Now ready.

THE HABITATIONS of MAN in ALL AGES. By **E. VIOUET-LE-DUC**, Author of "How to Build a House," "Annals of a Fortress," &c. Translated by H. BUCKNALL, Architect. 1 vol. demy 8vo. with over 100 Illustrations by the Author, cloth extra, 16s.

Now ready.

FROM the HEBRIDES to the HIMALAYAS. By **CONSTANCE F. GORDON CUMMINGS**. 2 vols. medium 8vo. with very numerous fine Wood Engravings from the Author's Drawings, cloth extra, 48s.

"The ever-changing scenes are described with a force and vividness which strongly impress the mind." *—Court Journal.*

London: **SAMPSON LOW, MARSTON, SEARLE, & RIVINGTON**, 193 Fleet Street, E.C.

8vo. 2s.

CHRISTIANITY and MORALITY: the Boyle Lectures for 1874-75. By the Rev. **HENRY WACE**, Professor of Ecclesiastical History at King's College, and Chaplain of Lincoln's Inn. **BASIL MONTAGU PICKERING**, 193 Piccadilly, W.

Now ready, Forty-ninth Edition, 2s.

THE CHILD'S GUIDE to KNOWLEDGE. By a **LADY.** The Original Authorized Edition, brought down to the Present Time.

London: **SIMPKIN, MARSHALL, & CO.**

Just out, crown 8vo. 2s. 6d.

THE KINDER-GARTEN: Principles of Fröbel's System and their bearing on the Education of Women; also, Remarks on the Higher Education of Women. By **EMILY SHIRREFF**, Author of "Intellectual Education for Women." London: **CHAPMAN & HALL**, 193 Piccadilly.

BOOKS FOR LENT.

BENEDICITE; or, the Song of the Three Children.

Being Illustrations of the Power, Beneficence, and Design manifested by the Creator in His Works. By G. CHAPLIN CHILD. Post 8vo. 6s.
"Taking the hymn, 'O all ye works of the Lord,' as the motive of his book, the author has culled from the whole range of science and natural history such facts as illustrate the power and wisdom and goodness of the Creator. It is a happy idea, very well carried out."—*Church Builder*.

SIGNS and WONDERS in the LAND of HAM; or,

the Ten Plagues of Egypt, with Ancient and Modern Illustrations. By Rev. T. S. MILLINGTON. Post 8vo. with Woodcuts, 7s. 6d.
"Mr. Millington writes with the simplicity of a scholar, and the marked moderation of a man perfectly sure of his own ground. The history is most carefully developed; the nature and effect of each plague is described, and the weight of external testimony brought forward to corroborate the Mosaic history is simply irresistible."—*Church Herald*.

THE CONTINUITY of SCRIPTURE, as declared by

the Testimony of our Lord and of the Evangelists and Apostles. By Lord HATHERLEY. 16mo. 2s. 6d.
"A condensed and forcible argument in support of the Divine authority of the Holy Scriptures and of the truth of the Christian interpretation of them. Lord Hatherley has thrown his whole intellectual and moral authority on the side of the received faith, and has rendered the Church an immense service."—*Times*.

THE NEW TESTAMENT. Edited, with a Plain

Practical Commentary for the use of Families. By the late EDWARD CHURTON, M.A., Archdeacon of Cleveland; and W. BASIL JONES, D.D., Bishop of St. David's. 2 vols. crown 8vo. with 100 Views of Sacred Places, price 21s.
"This Commentary is not less marked by accuracy and sound learning than by judgment, candour, and piety. We highly commend it to the large class of readers for whom it is designed."—*Guardian*.

JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET.

RAWLINSON'S ANCIENT HISTORIES.

Now ready, Third and revised Edition, 4 vols. 8vo. with Maps and 350 Woodcuts, £2 8s.

HISTORY of HERODOTUS. A New English Version. Edited, with copious Notes and Appendices, illustrating the history and geography of Herodotus, from the most recent sources of information, and embodying the chief results, historical and ethnographical, which have been obtained in the progress of cuneiform and hieroglyphical discovery, by GEORGE RAWLINSON, M.A., Canon of Canterbury, and Camden Professor of Ancient History at Oxford. Assisted by Sir HENRY RAWLINSON and Sir J. GARDNER WILKINSON.
"It has been necessary, from the progress made in cuneiform discovery and decipherment, to subject some of the essays to a searching revision, which has resulted in considerable alteration. It is scarcely necessary to apologize for changes rendered necessary by the advances made in a study which was in its infancy when the present work was originally composed and published. In revising the account of the Babylonian and Assyrian Monarchies, the author has received much assistance from Mr. George Smith, of the British Museum."—*Extract from Preface*.

II

Third Edition, revised, 3 vols. 8vo. with Maps and 600 Illustrations, 42s.

THE FIVE GREAT MONARCHIES of the ANCIENT EASTERN WORLD; or, the History, Geography, and Antiquities of Assyria, Babylonia, Chaldea, Media, and Persia. Collected and illustrated from Ancient and Modern Sources. By Canon RAWLINSON, M.A.

JOHN MURRAY, ALBEMARLE STREET.

THE NEW HISTORICAL ROMANCE BY THE LATE LORD LYTTON.

Now ready, Second Edition, crown 8vo. cloth, 10s. 6d.

PAUSANIAS THE SPARTAN:

An Unfinished Romance.

By the Author of "My Novel," "The Parisians," &c.

Edited, with a Preface, by his Son, ROBERT LORD LYTTON.

"That this volume is interesting in a high degree need hardly be said."—*Spectator*.
"Although it must, unapologetically, always remain a mere fragment, it is as complete, such as it is, as any tale in our art galleries."—*Weekly Register*.
"Is of real intrinsic interest, and we have many reasons to congratulate the present Lord Lytton and his co-editor, Dr. B. H. Kennedy, upon their decision to place the romance, all incomplete though it be, in the hands of the public."—*Observer*.
"Shows the master hand."—*Standard*.
"To students of Greek literature the volume will have special attractions; and as showing the range of the field which was cultivated by the late noble author, it must be regarded as a literary curiosity."—*Liverpool Mercury*.
"Full of interest. . . . The characters are well indicated, and the story is so far developed that students of Greek history may guess at the probable finish."—*Liverpool Courier*.
"A literary curiosity, showing how wide was the field which Lord Lytton cultivated, and in what manner he worked."—*Scotsman*.
"A deeply interesting fragment, which has been rightly added to the published works of an author whose reputation it will certainly sustain."—*Newcastle Daily Chronicle*.
"For powerful portraiture of character and vivid reproduction of old-world scenes, this posthumous story far surpasses any of Lord Lytton's better-known historic novels."—*North British Daily Mail*.
"The editor has done wisely in giving to the world as much of the manuscript as he could find amongst his father's literary remains; for incomplete as the novel may be, even in its unfinished state, it possesses charms for all who admire the writings of the author of 'The Last Days of Pompeii.'"—*Carlisle Journal*.
"In the little portion of the work of a great man is embodied more than would make the fortune of half-a-dozen ordinary novels."—*Warrington Guardian*.

GEORGE ROUTLEDGE & SONS, THE BROADWAY, LUDGATE HILL.

Now ready, Second Edition, revised and enlarged, 15s.

FOOD and DIETETICS Physiologically and Therapeutically considered. By F. W. FAY, M.D., F.R.S., Physician to, and Lecturer on Physiology at, Guy's Hospital.

"A standard work of reference."—*Lancet*.
"A book of first-rate merit."—*Practitioner*.
"Valuable theoretical and practical information in every page."—*Athenæum*.
"May not only be studied carefully for the sake of the valuable information it contains, but may serve to pass an idle hour pleasantly as well as profitably."—*Pharmaceutical Journal*.
"A work with which every educated man ought to make himself familiar."—*Chemical News*.

J. & A. CHURCHILL, and SIMPKIN, MARSHALL, & CO.

Now ready, Twenty-sixth Thousand, 1s. 6d.; post free, 1s. 8d.

REVELATIONS of QUACKS and QUACKERY. By DETECTOR. Reprinted from the "Medical Circular."

"Detector" has done his work well. We advise the public to purchase these 'Revelations,' and see how the disgusting tribe of sham doctors are pilloried and their doings related."—*Public Opinion*.

London: BAILLIERE & CO., King William Street, Strand.

GREAT MARLBOROUGH STREET.

HURST & BLACKETT'S NEW WORKS.

PEARLS of the PACIFIC. By J. W.

BODDAM-WHETHAM. 1 vol. 8vo. with 8 Illustrations, 15s.
"The literary merits of Mr. Whetham's work are of a very high order. His descriptions are vivid, and his comments upon what he saw judicious."—*Athenæum*.

LIFE of MARIE ANTOINETTE, Queen of

France. By CHARLES DUKE YONGE, Regius Professor of Modern History in Queen's College, Belfast. 2 vols. crown 8vo. with Portrait, 21s. [March 17.]

MY YOUTH, by SEA and LAND, from

1809 to 1816. By CHARLES LOFTUS, formerly of the Royal Navy, late of the Coldstream Guards. 2 vols. 21s.
"Major Loftus's interesting reminiscences will prove generally attractive. They are full of exciting adventures."—*Post*.

LODGE'S PEERAGE and BARONETAGE

for 1876. Under the especial Patronage of HER MAJESTY, Corrected by the Nobility, and containing all the New Creations. Forty-fifth Edition, 1 vol. with the Arms beautifully engraved, handsomely bound, 31s. 6d.
"A work of great value. It is the most faithful record we possess of the aristocracy of the day."—*Post*.

THE NEW AND POPULAR NOVELS.

DIANA CAREW. By Mrs. FORRESTER,

Author of "Dolores," &c. 3 vols.
"A delightful story. The reader's sympathies, once enlisted for Diana, never flag. The various subsidiary characters are all lifelike, and in her dialogues Mrs. Forrester is especially happy. 'Diana Carew' is a really good book."—*John Bull*.

ERSILIA. By the Author of "My Little

Lady." 3 vols.
"A novel of more than common merit. Ersilia is a character of much beauty, and her story holds the reader with an unrelaxing interest. A quite unusual ability in drawing character is the distinguishing excellence of this novel."—*Spectator*.
"Ersilia" is a work of much power and originality, the production of a mind of great natural vigour, enriched with stores of knowledge, conversant with the different aspects of life, and equally sensible to the beautiful, the pathetic, and the humorous."—*Court Journal*.

GUARDIAN and LOVER. By Mrs. ALEXANDER

FRASER, Author of "Denison's Wife," &c. 3 vols.

THE MANCHESTER MAN. By Mrs. G.

LINNEUS BANKS, Author of "God's Providence House." 3 vols.
"A thoroughly stirring and enthralling tale. There could not be a more vivid picture of Manchester life."—*at*.

NO LOVE LOST. By Mrs. RANDOLPH,

Author of "Wild Hyacinth," &c. 3 vols. [Just ready.]

Reduced to only Two Guinea (22s.), originally cost 4s.

HISTORY OF THE WAR IN THE PENINSULA AND SOUTH OF FRANCE.

By Major-General Sir WILLIAM F. P. NAPIER.

This New Edition, preparing for early issue, will be Unabridged, containing all the Author's latest Notes and Corrections, as also the 55 Maps and Plans, forming 6 vols. post 8vo. cloth, 42s.

NEW EDITION.

CHAMBERS'S ENCYCLOPÆDIA:

A Dictionary of Universal Knowledge for the People.

10 vols. royal 8vo. cloth 44 15 0
10 vols. half calf 6 6 0
10 vols. half Russia 7 7 0

The Work contains 27,000 distinct Articles, 3,400 Wood Engravings, 39 Coloured Maps, and Index to 17,000 incidentally mentioned Subjects.

The Articles have undergone thorough revision, and have been brought up to the Present Date, many of them having been entirely rewritten.

W. & R. CHAMBERS, LONDON AND EDINBURGH.

New Edition, Vol. I. cloth, price 10s.

CHAMBERS'S CYCLOPÆDIA OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

Comprising the most exquisite productions of English intellect, from Anglo-Saxon to the Present Times, set in a Biographical and Critical History of the Literature itself.

Edited by ROBERT CHAMBERS, LL.D.

Third Edition, Edited by ROBERT CARRUTHERS, LL.D.

To be Completed in 2 handsome Volumes, royal 8vo. 22s.

W. & R. CHAMBERS, LONDON AND EDINBURGH.

MEMOIR OF NORMAN MACLEOD, D.D.

FIFTH THOUSAND NOW READY.

2 vols. demy 8vo. with Portraits and numerous Illustrations, 95s.

MEMOIR OF NORMAN MACLEOD, D.D.

By his Brother, the Rev. DONALD MACLEOD,
One of Her Majesty's Chaplains.

NEW WORK BY AUGUSTUS J. C. HARE.

3 vols. crown 8vo. with 130 Illustrations, each 15s.

CITIES OF NORTHERN AND CENTRAL ITALY.

By AUGUSTUS J. C. HARE,
Author of "Walks in Rome," &c.

"* Intended as a Companion to all those parts of Italy which lie between the Alps and the districts described in "Days near Rome."

The Volumes are sold separately.

- Vol. I. ON THE RIVIERAS AND IN PIEDMONT AND LOMBARDY.
- Vol. II. IN VENETIA, PARMA, THE EMILIA, THE MARCHE, AND NORTHERN TUSCANY.
- Vol. III. FLORENCE, SIENA, AND OTHER TOWNS OF TUSCANY AND UMBRIA.

By the same Author,

WALKS in ROME. Sixth Edition, 2 vols.
crown 8vo. 21s.

"The best handbook of the city and environs of Rome ever published. It cannot be too much commended."—*Full Mail Gazette*.

DAYS near ROME. Second Edition, 2 vols.
crown 8vo. with more than 100 Illustrations by the Author, 24s.

"Henceforward it must take its place as a standard work indispensable to every intellectual student."—*Times*.

WANDERINGS in SPAIN. Third Edition,
crown 8vo. with Illustrations, 10s. 6d.

"The ideal book of travel in Spain, which exactly anticipates the requirements of every body who is fortunate enough to be going, and ably consoles those who are not, by supplying the imagination from the dainties and most delicious of its stores."—*Spectator*.

WALKS in FLORENCE. By SUSAN and
JOANNA HORNER. Third Edition, 2 vols. crown 8vo. with Illustrations, 21s.

"No one can read it without wishing to visit Florence, and no one ought to visit Florence without having read it."—*Times*.

DALDY, ISBISTER, & CO., 56 LUDGATE HILL, LONDON.

Just ready, a Second Edition of

ROUND MY HOUSE : Notes of Rural Life
in France in Peace and War. By P. G. HAMERTON. Crown 8vo. cloth,
price 7s. 6d.

"Mr. Hamerton has had singularly good opportunities of observation. He has lived in a French country district for years; he has been familiar with people in all classes; and he has been an eye-witness of changes destined to mark a great historical epoch. He has the eye of a painter; he is a man of a singularly liberal mind, and can both admire a Catholic bishop and sympathise with the worship of Garibaldi."—*Saturday Review*.

"Mr. Hamerton's book is a frank record of personal observation, and his pages reflect faithfully the general aspects of French country life. Upon the position of political parties, and on many other matters, he has generally something to say, either new, or which we knew less certainly before."—*Times*.

"A very thoughtful and yet amusing book, notable for its thorough truthfulness, its keen appreciation of character, and the utter absence of exaggeration."—*Guardian*.

ALSO BY THE SAME AUTHOR.

THE SYLVAN YEAR. By P. G. HAMERTON.
With Twenty Etchings, by the Author and other Artists, cloth, gilt edges,
price 12s. 6d.

"Few men of similar tastes will read these pages without extreme satisfaction. The pretty and simple etchings are thoroughly in keeping, and varied as they are in pathos and in subjects they do credit to the skill of the draughtsmen."—*Athenaeum*.

THE UNKNOWN RIVER: an Etcher's
Voyage of Discovery. By P. G. HAMERTON. 4to. with 86 Etchings by the
Author, cloth, gilt edges, 12s. 6d. Also, a New and Cheaper Edition, 8vo.
with 8 Etchings, cloth, 5s.

HARRY BLOUNT. By P. G. HAMERTON.
Passages in a Boy's Life on Land and Sea. Cloth, 5s.

SEELEY, JACKSON, & HALLIDAY, 54 FLEET STREET.

THE NEW NOVELS,

AT EVERY LIBRARY.

ADAM GRAINGER. By Mrs. HENRY WOOD,
Author of "East Lynne," "The Channings," &c.

A NEW GODIVA. By STANLEY HOPE,
Author of "Geoffrey's Wife," &c. 3 vols. crown 8vo.

"We will go so far as to say that Mr. Hope's is one of the most successful novels we have read for some months. The writer displays considerable originality."—*Picaro*.
"Where there are so many scenes of power it is difficult to say which is the best."—*John Bull*.
"Brilliantly written. We without hesitation recommend this novel. There is much delicacy of touch in the description of the home life at the country house."—*Lloyd's Weekly News*.

ROOK'S DENE. By J. W. LAMSON. 3 vols.
crown 8vo.

A FAMILY TREE. By ALBANY DE FON-
BLANQUE, Author of "A Tangled Skein," "Cut Adrift," &c. 3 vols.
crown 8vo.

"In 'A Family Tree' the author evinces no ordinary power. His style is clear and vivid; he can contrive an interesting plot and fill in the details with skill; he is picturesque and dramatic; and he shows much originality and discrimination in his conceptions of character."—*Full Mail Gazette*.

"THE GIRL HE LEFT BEHIND HIM."

By R. MOUNTNEY JEPHSON, Author of "Tom Bulkeley of Lissington," &c.
3 vols. crown 8vo.

"This is a novel with abundance of 'go' and incident, rich in scenes of military and Indian life, with some clever sketches, and not devoid of some deeper touches that are most artistically introduced. Altogether it may be described as a romance of the kind called rattling, written by one who, to a considerable knowledge of the world, adds a fair amount of culture."—*World*.
"Intensely dramatic scenes are accomplished in an unusually masterly manner."—*Sporting and Dramatic News*.

THE NOVELS of RHODA BROUGHTON.

Uniform Edition, in 5 vols. complete 30s.; or any one volume separately,
each 6s.

NANCY. | RED AS A ROSE IS SHE.
GOOD-BYE, SWEETHEART. | COMETH UP AS A FLOWER.
NOT WISELY, BUT TOO WELL.

RICHARD BENTLEY & SON, NEW BURLINGTON STREET.

This day, crown 8vo. with Portrait, 7s. 6d.

THOUGHTS ON ART, PHILOSOPHY, AND RELIGION.

Being Selections from the Unpublished Papers of SYDNEY DOBELL.

With an Introductory Note by JOHN NICHOL, M.A., LL.D.

LONDON: SMITH, ELDER, & CO., 15 WATERLOO PLACE.

Second Edition, Revised, with considerable Additions, crown 8vo. 8s. 6d.

MOHAMMED and MOHAMMEDANISM :

Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain in February and March 1874. By R. BOSWORTH SMITH, M.A., Assistant-Master in Harrow School.

"To Mr. Bosworth Smith must be awarded the credit not only of having fully, fairly, and freely investigated the practical features of Islam, but of having rendered a clear, unbiased, and unambiguous verdict, the influence of which, whether acknowledged or not, must be felt throughout the literary world."—*Fraser's Magazine*.
"I recommend these lectures to the careful perusal of the student, the politician, and the missionary."—*Rev. G. P. BADGER, in Contemporary Review*.
"A storehouse of valuable facts and eloquent reasoning."—*Levant Herald*.

LONDON: SMITH, ELDER, & CO., 15 WATERLOO PLACE.

NEW NOVELS.

A VERY WOMAN. By M. F. O'MALLEY.
3 vols.

PARLEY MAGNA. By EDWARD WHITAKER,
Author of "Lucy Fitzadam." 2 vols.

LONDON: SMITH, ELDER, & CO., 15 WATERLOO PLACE.

NAVAL POWERS and their POLICY;

with Tabular Statements, giving Full Details of every Ironclad Ship in the British and principal Foreign Navies. By JOHN C. PAGET.

LONDON: LONGMANS & CO. PORTSMOUTH: GRIFFIN & CO.

DEAD MEN'S SHOES: the New Novel. By Miss BRADDON.

MISS BRADDON'S NEW NOVEL.

At all Libraries, in 3 vols.

DEAD MEN'S SHOES; the New Novel.

By the Author of "Lady Audley's Secret," &c.

LONDON: JOHN MAXWELL & CO.

DEAD MEN'S SHOES: the New Novel. By Miss BRADDON.

10 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND, March 9.

SAMUEL TINSLEY'S NEW PUBLICATIONS.

SECOND EDITION.

ITALY REVISITED. By A. GALLENGA
(the "Times" Correspondent). Author of "Italy, Past and Present,"
"Country Life in Piedmont," &c. 2 vols. demy 8vo. 30s.
TIMES: "Mr. Gallenga's new volumes on Italy will be welcome to those who care for an
unprejudiced account of the prospects and present condition of the country.....Most
interesting volumes."
SPECTATOR: "The two volumes abound in interesting matter, with vivid sketches of
places and persons."

DICKENS'S LONDON; or, London in the
Works of Charles Dickens. By T. EDGAR PEMBERTON, Author of "Under
Pressure." Crown 8vo. 6s.

AMONG the CARLISTS. By JOHN FURLEY.
Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.

THE EMPEROR and the GALILEAN: a
Drama in Two Parts. Translated from the Norwegian of HENRIK IBSEN,
by CATHERINE RAY. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.

SOCIAL ARCHITECTURE; or, Reasons and
Means for the Demolition and Reconstruction of the Social Edifice. By AN
EXILE FROM FRANCE. Demy 8vo. 16s. [Next week.]

POPULAR NEW NOVELS.

NOTICE.—A SECOND EDITION IS NOW READY OF THE NEW STORY
BY THE POPULAR AUTHOR OF "ST. SIMON'S NIECE," &c.
'TWIXT HAMMER and ANVIL: a Novel.
By FRANK LEE BENEDICT. Author of "Miss Dorothy's Charge," "St. Simon's
Niece," &c. 3 vols. 31s. 6d.
"A new and powerful novelist has arisen."—*Spectator*.
"Since the publication of his last novel Mr. Benedict has made a most decided step in the
right direction.....The book will take a good place among the novels of the season."
Standard.
"We do not think Mr. Benedict has written anything so good as the book before us."—*Hour*.
"Fully up to the high level of Mr. Benedict's previous novels, while in some respects it
shows a distinct advance."—*Scotsman*.

THE MASTER of RIVERSWOOD. By
MRS. ARTHUR LEWIS. 3 vols. 31s. 6d.

LASCARE: a Tale. 3 vols. 31s. 6d.

IN SPIKE of FORTUNE. By MAURICE GAY.
3 vols. 31s. 6d.

MART and MANSION: a Tale of Struggle
and Rest. By PHILIP MASSINGER. 3 vols. 31s. 6d.

BRANDON TOWER. 3 vols. 31s. 6d.

TOO FAIR TO GO FREE. By HENRY KAY
WILLOUGHBY. 3 vols. 31s. 6d. [Just ready.]

ALL ROUND the WORLD; or, What's the
Object? By FRANK FOSTER, Author of "Number One; or, the Way of the
World," &c. &c. 3 vols. 31s. 6d. [Next week.]

POPULAR NEW NOVELS, &c.

EACH COMPLETE IN ONE VOLUME.

A WIDOW of WINDSOR. By ANNIE GASKELL.
Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.
"A pretty little story of society."—*Spectator*.
"Bright, fresh, natural, and perfectly innocent."—*Guardian*.
"Gracefully written."—*Scotsman*.
"Considerably above the average."—*City Press*.

CINDERELLA: a New Version of an Old
Story. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.
"A very interesting story.....The author is evidently a cultivated person who has a very
pretty talent for narrative, and who displays much ingenuity in constructing her story."
Daily Telegraph.

STILL UNSURE. By C. VANE, Author of
"Sweet Bells Jangled." Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.

THE YOUTH of the PERIOD. By J. F.
SHAW KENNEDY, Esq., late 79th Highlanders. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d. [This day.]

**MUSICAL TALES, PHANTASMS, and
SKETCHES.** From the German of ELISE POLKO. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.
"This delightful book."—*Court Circular*.
"There is a wild witchery in its pages that entrances and delights."—*Figaro*.

EMERGING from the CHRYSALIS: a Novel.
By J. F. NICHOLS. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.

A SACRIFICE to HONOUR. By Mrs. HENRY
LITTLETON ROGERS. Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.

WHO CAN TELL? By MERE HAZARD.
Crown 8vo. 7s. 6d.

SAMUEL TINSLEY, 10 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND.

TRÜBNER & CO.'S PUBLICATIONS.

Next week, crown 8vo. pp. xxii.—318, cloth.

LANGUAGE and its STUDY, with especial
reference to the Indo-European Family of Languages: Seven Lectures
by WILLIAM DWIGHT WHITNEY. Edited with Introduction, Notes,
Tables of Declension and Conjugation, Grimm's Law with Illustration,
and an Index, by the Rev. R. MORRIS, M.A., LL.D.

Nearly ready, crown 8vo. cloth.

**MISTAKEN AIMS and ATTAINABLE
IDEALS** of the ARTIZAN CLASS. By W. R. GREG.

Demy 8vo. with Maps and Illustrations, pp. clxi.—314, cloth, 21s.

THE NARRATIVES of the MISSION of
GEORGE BOGLE, B.C.S., to the TESHU LAMA, and of the
JOURNEY of THOMAS MANNING to LHASA. Edited, with
Notes and Introduction, and Lives of Mr. Bogle and Mr. Manning, by
CLEMENTS R. MARKHAM, C.B., F.R.S.

Crown 8vo. pp. xii.—316, cloth, 7s. 6d.

**LEAVES from a WORD-HUNTER'S NOTE-
BOOK**; being some Contributions to English Etymology. By the
Rev. A. S. PALMER, B.A.

"The work professes to embody the results of recent investigations, and to be
wider in scope, while more exhaustive in treatment, than the well known manual
by the Archbishop of Dublin, which, in some respects, it resembles. The words
selected for examination are those only which have a recondite derivation or have
hitherto been unsatisfactorily explained."

Crown 8vo. pp. ix.—248, cloth, 6s.

JONAS FISHER: a Poem in Brown and
White. By the Earl of SOUTHBESK.

"No one who knows what poetry is can doubt that here is poetry of a very high
order."—*Scotsman*.

"A truly suggestive, bold, and original book."—*Nonconformist*.

"Rich in suggestiveness as regards the most important problems of human life."
Edinburgh Daily Review.

Demy 8vo. pp. xi.—420, handsomely bound in cloth, 12s.

SKETCHES of ANGLO-JEWISH HISTORY.
By JAMES PICCIOTTO.

"A work of interest and value on the subject."—*Saturday Review*.

"He has written a book which should be interesting and instructive, even to the
Jews.....to Christians generally it will be like a revelation."—*Nonconformist*.

"A desideratum has been supplied."—*Jewish Chronicle*.

"Mr. Picciotto, one of the contributors to the 'Jewish Chronicle,' from whose
extremely curious and interesting book, 'Sketches of Anglo-Jewish History,' we
are taking most of our facts."—*The English Jews*, in the *Spectator*.

Vol. I. Third Edition, demy 8vo. pp. 488, cloth, 12s.

Vol. II. demy 8vo. pp. 552, cloth, 16s.

PROBLEMS of LIFE and MIND. By
GEORGE HENRY LEWES. First Series: "The Foundations of a
Creed."

Second Edition, crown 8vo. pp. viii.—200, cloth, 4s. 6d.

REVERBERATIONS. To which is prefixed
"The Growth of Opinion which made me leave the Church." By
W. M. W. CALL, M.A. Cambridge.

"A genial spirit of love and hope for man breathes in every page of Mr. Call's
poems."—*Examiner*.

Demy 8vo. pp. xxii.—420, cloth, 16s.

KASHMIR and KASHGHAR: a Narrative
of the Journey of the Embassy to Kashgar in 1873—74. By H. W.
BELLEW, C.S.I.

"Mr. Bellow is well known, both to the Indian Government and to the general
public, as an experienced traveller, a good oriental scholar, and an interesting
writer."—*Times*.

Post 8vo. cloth, 7s. 6d.

**A RETROSPECT of the RELIGIOUS LIFE
of ENGLAND**; or, the Church, Puritanism, and Free Enquiry. By
JOHN J. TAYLER, B.A. Re-issued, with an Introductory Chapter on
Recent Development, by JAMES MARTINEAU, LL.D., D.D.

LONDON: TRÜBNER & CO., LUDGATE HILL.

TINSLEY BROTHERS' NEW PUBLICATIONS.

THE GREAT CANAL at SUEZ; its Political, Engineering, and Financial History. By PERCY FITZGERALD, Author of "The Life of David Garrick," "The Lives of the Kembles," &c. 2 vols. 8vo. [Now ready.]

THE LIFE of THOMAS, LORD LYTTLETON. By THOMAS FROST, Author of "The Old Showman and the Old London Fairs," "Circus Life and Circus Celebrities," "Lives of the Conjurors," &c. 1 vol. 8vo. [Now ready.]

H. IRVING, J. L. TOOLE, SIMS REEVES, &c.
This day will be published the First Part of a New Illustrated Work, entitled
FOOTLIGHT FAVOURITES: a Series of Tinted Lithographs from Original Drawings by ALFRED BRYAN. To be published in 12 Monthly Numbers, each containing Four Character-Portraits, with short Biographical Sketch of each. Part I. will contain H. Irving, J. L. Toole, Sims Reeves, and the late G. Behnere.

Shortly will be published,

THE HISTORY of the BRITISH TURF. By JAMES RICE. 2 vols. 8vo.

WOMEN of FASHION, from Anne to Victoria. By DAVENPORT ADAMS. 2 vols. 8vo.

ENGLISH FEMALE ARTISTS (Dedicated to Miss THOMPSON). By Miss CLAYTON, Author of "Queens of Song," &c. 2 vols. 8vo.

TINSLEY BROTHERS' NEW NOVELS.

NOW READY AT EVERY LIBRARY IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

MORLEY ASHTON: a Tale of the Sea. By JAMES GRANT, Author of "The Romance of War," "Mary Lorraine," "One of the Six Hundred," &c. 3 vols.

AT the SIGN of the SILVER FLAGON. By B. L. FAIRBORN, Author of "An Island Pearl," "Blade-o'-Grass," "Golden Grain," "Bread-and-Cheese and Kisses," "Griff," "Joshua Marvel," and "Jessie Trim." 3 vols.

HIDDEN CHAINS. By FLORENCE MARRYAT, Author of "Fighting the Air," "Love's Conflict," "Prey of the Gods," "Her Lord and Master," "Woman against Woman," &c. 3 vols.

THE RED HOUSE by the RIVER. By GEORGE DOUGLAS, Author of "Brown as a Berry." 3 vols.

THE OLD TUNE. By H. T. CRAVEN, Author of "Milky White," &c. 3 vols.

SLIPPERY GROUND. By LEWIS WINGFIELD. 3 vols.

ANABEL'S RIVAL. By DORA RUSSELL, Author of "The Vicar's Governess," "The Miner's Oath," &c. 3 vols.

ABOVE SUSPICION. By Mrs. J. H. RIDDELL, Author of "George Gelth," "Too Much Alone," "Home, Sweet Home," "City and Suburb," &c. 3 vols.

"Mrs. Riddell has much merit and a great charm. We have enjoyed reading these volumes very much: the whole book is written in a very bright and lively style, and is decidedly well worth reading."—*Vanity Fair*.

HURSEE DE FONTENAY; or, All Lost save Honour. By Mrs. TYLER. 3 vols.

HAROLD FREEHEART: a New Novel. 3 vols.

TINSLEY BROTHERS' NEW SIX-SHILLING VOLUMES, AMUSING, ENTERTAINING, AND INSTRUCTIVE.

Clowns, Riders, Acrobats, the Astleys, Ducrows, Cookes, Battys, Henglers, Sangers, &c.
CIRCUS LIFE and CIRCUS CELEBRITIES. By THOMAS FROST.

"A more interesting and amusing record can, indeed, scarcely be found."—*Sunday Times*.

THE LIFE and ADVENTURES of a CHEAP JACK. By One of the Fraternity. Edited by CHARLES HINDLEY.
"The author has added many amusing illustrations of the showman's life, with anecdotes and sketches of character, making altogether a volume of entertaining reading."—*Era*.

THE LIVES of the CONJURORS. By THOMAS FROST.

"Our readers will see that the author has provided an immense amount of entertainment for them. No work upon conjuring that we have seen is so full of amusement and information."—*Era*.

THE OLD SHOWMAN and the OLD LONDON FAIRS. By THOMAS FROST.

"We have to thank him for a most agreeable volume, full of chatty and pleasant information. All who are interested in theatrical matters should read it at once."—*Era*.

CASQUE and COWL: a Tale of the French Reformation. By the Author of "Homeless and Friendless," &c. 1 vol. with Frontispiece and Vignette.

"There is no lack of stirring incident."—*Morning Post*.
"Is an attractive and interesting story. It deserves hearty commendation."—*Record*.
"A romance of the most fascinating description."—*Court Journal*.

UNDER the GREENWOOD TREE: a Rural Painting of the Dutch School. By the Author of "Far from the Madding Crowd," "A Pair of Blue Eyes," &c. 1 vol. profusely illustrated, &c.

"For light, happy touches of life and humour, we know of no rustic dialogues to be compared with these but in the earlier and best pages of George Eliot."—*Standard*.

TAVERN ANECDOTES and SAYINGS, including the ORIGIN of SIGNS, and REMINISCENCES CONNECTED with TAVERNS, COFFEE-HOUSES, CLUBS, &c. Edited by CHARLES HINDLEY. With many quaint illustrations.

"Mr. Hindley has brought together in this entertaining volume a mass of curious facts which are well worth studying, giving, as many of them do, reliable illustrations of the manners and customs of different times in our social history."—*Public Opinion*.

"Is a most readable volume."—*Daily Telegraph*.

TINSLEY BROTHERS, 8 CATHERINE STREET, STRAND.

MESSRS. MACMILLAN & CO'S LIST.

BY the Right Hon. W. E. GLADSTONE, M.P.

HOMERIC SYNCHRONISM: an Inquiry into the TIME and PLACE of HOMER. Crown 8vo. 6s. [This day.]

JUVENTUS MUNDI: Gods and Men of the Heroic Age. Second Edition, crown 8vo. with Map. 10s. 6d.

MY CIRCULAR NOTES: Extracts from Journals, Letters sent home, and Notes written while Travelling Westward Round the World, from July 6, 1874, to July 6, 1875. By J. F. CAMPBELL, Author of "Frost and Fire." 2 vols. crown 8vo. with numerous illustrations from Sketches by the Author, 28s. [This day.]

MANDALAY to MOMIEN: a Narrative of the Two Expeditions to Western China of 1868 and 1875, under Colonel E. B. Sladen and Colonel Horace Browne. By JOHN ANDERSON, M.D. Edinb., F.R.S.E. 8vo. with Maps and numerous illustrations, 21s. [This day.]

BY JOHN RICHARD GREEN, Author of "A Short History of the English People."

STRAY STUDIES from ITALY and ENGLAND. Crown 8vo. 8s. 6d. [This day.]

A NILE JOURNAL. By T. G. APPLETON. Crown 8vo. with Illustrations by Eugene Benson. [Next week.]

PREHISTORIC MAN: Researches into the Origin of Civilization in the Old World and in the New. By DANIEL WILSON, LL.D., F.R.S.E., Professor of History and English Literature in University College, Toronto. Third Edition. Revised and Enlarged, 2 vols. medium 8vo. with 2 Coloured Plates and numerous Woodcuts, 31s. [This day.]

POLITICAL and MILITARY EPISODES from the Life and Correspondence of the Right Hon. J. BURGOYNE. By E. B. DE FONBLANQUE. Containing Original Letters from Lord Chatham, Charles Fox, Edmund Burke, Washington, and other distinguished Statesmen. 8vo. with Portrait, Illustrations, and Maps, 16s. [This day.]

"This is a most interesting and well-written work, full of research, and containing many documents not hitherto published which are essential to the history of the period treated."—*Vanity Fair*.

The SECOND VOLUME (1766–1776) of the LIFE of

WILLIAM, EARL of SHELBURNE, afterwards First MARQUESS of LANSDOWNE. With Extracts from his Papers and Correspondence. By Lord EDMOND FITZMAURICE, M.P. 8vo. price 12s. (Vol. I. 1737–1766, 8vo. 12s.) [This day.]

"A valuable contribution to the better knowledge of a much controverted period of English and American history."—*Daily News*.

NEW EDITION, WITH PREFATORY MEMOIR BY THOS. HUGHES, Q.C.

ALTON LOCKE, Tailor and Poet: an Autobiography. By CHARLES KINGSLEY. ("Cheap Clothes and Nasty" has been added to this Edition.) Crown 8vo. 6s. [This day.]

PRIMER of LITERATURE. By the Rev. STOFFORD BROOKE, M.A. (LITERATURE PRIMERS, edited by JOHN RICHARD GREEN.) 18mo. 1s. [This day.]

"From first to last it is interesting; it gives a succinct view of our literature.....Mr. Brooke has attempted with singular success, on the whole, what is really a task of insuperable difficulty—to sum up in 160 small pages twelve centuries of literature; and if he sometimes writes above the beginner's faculty, he perhaps is thereby all the more interesting to many for whom his book will be a very great gain."—*Pail Mail Gazette*.

PRIMER of BOTANY. By J. D. HOOKER, C.B. President of the Royal Society. (SCIENCE PRIMERS, edited by Professors HUXLEY, ROSCOE, and BALFOUR STEWART.) 18mo. with numerous Illustrations, 1s. [This day.]

DISEASES of MODERN LIFE. By B. W. RICHARDSON, M.D., F.R.S. Crown 8vo. 12s. 6d. [This day.]

THE GOSPELS in the SECOND CENTURY: an Examination of the Critical Part of a Work entitled "Supernatural Religion." By W. SANDAY, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. 10s. 6d. [This day.]

SERMONS in CHELTENHAM COLLEGE CHAPEL. Preached during the First Year of his Office, 1875, by the Rev. H. KYNASTON, M.A., Principal of the College. Crown 8vo. 6s. [This day.]

SIR CHARLES DILKE'S "GREATER BRITAIN": a Record of Travel in English-Speaking Countries during 1866–7. Sixth Edition, crown 8vo. 6s.

The *Times* says: "Even as a mere work of travel his book is exceedingly pleasant reading, and it gives one, in a comparatively small compass, an infinity of information of the sort one most cares to have.....It is delightful reading from first to last."

"It is seldom that we meet with a work so able and suggestive."

Spectator.

MACMILLAN & CO., LONDON.

MESSRS. RIVINGTON'S EDUCATIONAL LIST.

Just published, Period II., crown 8vo. with numerous Maps and Plans, 5s.

AN ENGLISH HISTORY for the USE of

PUBLIC SCHOOLS. By the Rev. J. FRANK BRIGHT, M.A., Fellow of University College, and Historical Lecturer in Balliol, New, and University Colleges, Oxford; late Master of the Modern School at Marlborough College.

This Work is divided into three Periods of convenient and handy size, especially adapted for use in Schools, as well as for Students reading special portions of History for Local and other Examinations. It will also be issued in one complete Volume.

Period I.—MIDDLEVAL MONARCHY: The Departure of the Romans to Richard III. A.D. 449—1485. Price 4s. 6d.

Period II.—PERSONAL MONARCHY: Henry VII. to James II. A.D. 1485—1688. Price 5s.

Period III.—CONSTITUTIONAL MONARCHY: William and Mary to the Present Time. A.D. 1688—1837. *[In the press.]*

"For the use for which it is especially designed—that of a text-book in our public schools—it is excellently adapted."—*Academy.*

"An air of good common-sense pervades it; the style is entirely free from affectation or inflation, and is at the same time tolerably clear and easy to follow."—*Athenæum.*

"We do not know a book more suitable for school use, or one more likely to stimulate in boys an intelligent interest in constitutional and social history. We confess to having read the greater part of it with a very real pleasure."—*Educational Times.*

"It is written in a clear, straightforward, sensible way, and contains as much instruction as possible, put in a way that can be easily understood."—*Examiner.*

"It is a critical and thoughtful examination of the growth of this great nation, and while the facts are given always with clearness and force, the student is led to understand and to reflect not merely upon the events themselves, but upon a number of interesting and important considerations arising out of those events."—*School Board Chronicle.*

"A model of what a clear, attractive, well-arranged, and trustworthy manual of historical information ought to be."—*Glasgow Herald.*

"We can speak with entire satisfaction of the style in which the work is done. Mr. Bright's is a lucid, steady, vigorous style, which leaves nothing in doubt, and is comprehensive and thoroughly practical."—*Liverpool Advertiser.*

"Admirably adapted for the purpose intended, and should rank high as a text-book in all educational establishments."—*Civil Service Gazette.*

"It is written in easy and simple language, is free from historical prejudice, and may be commended for accuracy and convenience of arrangement. It is also provided with useful maps and genealogies of the leading families of mediæval times."—*Hunt.*

"Mr. Bright has done his work, as it seems to us, in a very careful manner."—*Scotsman.*

"The narrative is clear and concise, and illustrated by useful plans and maps."—*Notes and Queries.*

THE CAMPAIGNS of NAPOLEON. The

Text (in French) from M. Thiers' "Histoire de la Révolution Française," and "Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire." Edited, with English Notes for the use of Schools, by EDWARD E. BOWEN, M.A., Master of the Modern Side, Harrow School. 4 vols. crown 8vo. with Maps. Sold separately.

ARCOLA. 4s. 6d.

JENA. 3s. 6d.

MARENGO. 4s. 6d.

WATERLOO. 6s.

STORIES from OVID in ELEGIAC VERSE.

With Notes for School Use, and Marginal References to the "Public School Latin Primer." By R. W. TAYLOR, M.A., Assistant-Master at Rugby School, late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d.

THE TEMPEST of SHAKESPEARE.

Edited, with Notes at the end, by J. SURTEES PHILLPOTS, M.A., Head-Master of Bedford School, and formerly Fellow of New College, Oxford. Small 8vo. 2s.

Forming a Volume of the Rugby Edition of "Select Plays of Shakespeare."

THE AENEID of VERGIL. Books XI. and

XII. Edited, with Notes at the end, by FRANCIS STORR, B.A., Chief Master of Modern Subjects at Merchant Taylors' School. Crown 8vo. 2s. 6d.

TACITI HISTORIAE. Edited by W. H.

SIMCOX, M.A., Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. Books I. II. 6s. Books III. IV. V. 6s.

Forming Parts of the "Catena Classicorum."

THUCYDIDIS HISTORIA. Books I. and II.

Edited by CHARLES BIGG, M.A., late Senior Student and Tutor of Christ Church, Oxford; Principal of Brighton College. Crown 8vo. 6s.

BOOKS III. and IV. Edited by G. A. SIMCOX, M.A., Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. 6s.

Forming Parts of the "Catena Classicorum."

AN ELEMENTARY LATIN GRAMMAR.

By J. HAMBLEN SMITH, M.A., of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge; late Lecturer of St. Peter's College, Cambridge. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d.

NOTES on the GREEK TESTAMENT.

The Gospel according to S. Luke. By the Rev. ARTHUR CARR, M.A., Assistant-Master at Wellington College, late Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. 6s.

THE REIGN of LEWIS XI. By P. F.

WILLERT, M.A., Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. with Map, price 3s. 6d. *[Just ready.]*

Forming a Volume of "Historical Handbooks," edited by OSCAR BROWNING, M.A.

HISTORY of MODERN ENGLISH LAW.

By SIR ROLAND KNYVET WILSON, Bart., M.A., Barrister-at-Law, late Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d.

Forming a Volume of "Historical Handbooks," edited by OSCAR BROWNING, M.A.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE. From the Death

of Theodosius the Great to the Coronation of Charles the Great, A.D. 395 to A.D. 800. By A. M. CURTIS, M.A., Assistant-Master at Sherborne School, late Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. Crown 8vo. with Maps, 3s. 6d.

Forming a Volume of "Historical Handbooks," edited by OSCAR BROWNING, M.A.

HISTORY of the ENGLISH INSTITU-

TIONS. By PHILIP V. SMITH, M.A., Barrister-at-Law, Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d.

Forming a Volume of "Historical Handbooks," edited by OSCAR BROWNING, M.A.

XENOPHON'S MEMORABILIA. Book I.

With Notes by the Rev. C. E. MOBERTLY, M.A., Assistant-Master at Rugby School. Small 8vo. 2s.

ALEXANDER the GREAT in the PUNJAB.

From Arrian, Book V. (An Easy Greek Reading-Book, with Notes at the End and a Map.) By the Rev. CHARLES E. MOBERTLY, M.A., Assistant-Master at Rugby School. Small 8vo. 2s.

ENGLISH SCHOOL CLASSICS.

With Introductions, and Notes at the end of each Book.

Edited by FRANCIS STORR, B.A.

Chief Master of Modern Subjects in Merchant Taylors' School, late Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge, and Ball University Scholar.

Small 8vo.

THOMSON'S SEASONS: Winter. With Introduction to the

Series. By the Rev. J. FRANK BRIGHT, M.A., Fellow of University College, and Historical Lecturer in Balliol, New, and University Colleges, Oxford; late Master of the Modern School at Marlborough College. 1s.

COWPER'S TASK. By FRANCIS STORR, B.A. 2s.

Part I. (Book I.—The Sofa; Book II.—The Timepiece), 9d. Part II. (Book III.—The Garden; Book IV.—The Winter Evening), 9d. Part III. (Book V.—The Winter Morning Walk; Book VI.—The Winter Walk at Noon), 9d.

SCOTT'S LAY of the LAST MINSTREL. By J. SURTEES

PHILLPOTS, M.A., Head-Master of Bedford School, formerly Fellow of New College, Oxford. 2s. 6d.

Part I. (Canto I, with Introduction, &c.), 9d. Part II. (Cantos II. and III.), 9d. Part III. (Cantos IV. and V.), 9d. Part IV. (Canto VI.), 9d.

SCOTT'S LADY of the LAKE. By R. W. TAYLOR, M.A.,

Assistant-Master at Rugby School. 2s.

Part I. (Cantos I. and II.), 9d. Part II. (Cantos III. and IV.), 9d. Part III. (Cantos V. and VI.), 9d.

NOTES to SCOTT'S WAVERLEY. By H. W. EVE, M.A.,

Assistant-Master at Wellington College. 1s.; or with the Text, 2s. 6d.

TWENTY of BACON'S ESSAYS. By FRANCIS STORR, B.A.,

Chief Master of Modern Subjects in Merchant Taylors' School. 1s.

SIMPLE POEMS. Edited by W. E. MULLINS, M.A., Assistant-

Master at Marlborough College. 9d.

SELECTIONS from WORDSWORTH'S POEMS. By H. H.

TURNER, B.A., late Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. 1s.

WORDSWORTH'S EXCURSION: the Wanderer. By H. H.

TURNER, B.A., late Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. 1s.

MILTON'S PARADISE LOST. By FRANCIS STORR, B.A.

Book I., 9d. Book II., 9d.

SELECTIONS from the "SPECTATOR." By OSMUND AIRY,

M.A., Assistant-Master at Wellington College. 1s.

BROWNE'S RELIGIO MEDICI. By W. P. SMITH, M.A.,

Assistant-Master at Winchester College. 1s.

GOLDSMITH'S TRAVELLER and DESERTED VILLAGE.

By C. SASSEY, M.A., Assistant-Master at Marlborough College. 1s.

EXTRACTS from GOLDSMITH'S VICAR of WAKEFIELD.

By C. SASSEY, M.A., Assistant-Master at Marlborough College. 1s.

MACAULAY'S ESSAYS.

MOORE'S LIFE of BYRON. By FRANCIS STORR, B.A. 9d.

BOSWELL'S LIFE of JOHNSON. By FRANCIS STORR, B.A. 9d.

HALLAM'S CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY. By H. F. BOYD, late Scholar of Brasenose College, Oxford. 1s.

* * * The General Introduction to the Series will be found in Thomson's "Winter."

RIVINGTONS: WATERLOO PLACE, LONDON; OXFORD, AND CAMBRIDGE.

Printed by SPOTTISWOODE & CO., at No. 5 New-street Square, in the Parish of St. Bride, in the City of London; and Published by DAVID JONES, at the Office, No. 28 Southampton Street, Strand, in the Parish of St. Paul, Covent Garden, in the County of Middlesex.—Saturday, March 11, 1876.